THE

POLITICAL STATE

OF

THE BRITISH EMPIRE;

CONTAINING

A GENERAL VIEW

OF

THE DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN POSSESSIONS OF THE CROWN;

THE LAWS, COMMERCE, REVENUES, OFFICES, AND OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS,

CIVIL AND MILITARY.

By JOHN ADOLPHUS, Esq.

BARRISTER AT LAW, F.S.A.

AUTHOR OF "THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, FROM THE ACCESSION OF KING GEORGE III. TO THE PEACE OF 1783."

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

VOL. IV.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR T. CADELL AND W. DAVIES,

IN THE STRAND.

1818.

Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.

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POLITICAL STATE

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

SECOND GENERAL DIVISION.

SCOTLAND.

THE diviſion of Great Britain known by the name of Scotland is now to be conſidered. It is not intended to purſue an inquiry into all the circumſtances of the political condition of this country with the minuteneſs nor to the extent employed in former pages, but to give a general, though not indiſtinct, view of the ſeveral objects moſt important to be known. In the firſt place the epochs of hiſtory will be briefly noticed; the ſeveral counties will then be deſcribed, more at length than thoſe of England have been, becauſe under the head of each county will be contained an account of the moſt important public inſtitutions it contains; the metropolis, the trade, revenues, and ſome other particulars will afterward be ſeparately treated on.

HISTORY. On this ſubject it has been thought fit to rely on Mr. George Chalmers, and to follow the arrangement he has adopted in his excellent work, called Caledonia.

The original impulſe, which had been given to mankind, peopled the Britiſh iſlands, during the moſt early times. The ſtone monuments, which ſtill appear to inquiſitive eyes, in Britain and Ireland, evince that the firſt ſettlement of thoſe iſlands muſt have been accompliſhed during the priſtine ages of the poſt-diluvian world, while only one race of men exiſted in Europe, and while a ſecond impulſe had not yet induced various people to quit their original ſettlements in Aſia.

As the current of colonization, during thoſe times, conſtantly flowed from the eaſt to the weſt; as the iſles were neceſſarily colonized from their neighbouring continents; Britain muſt undoubtedly have been ſettled from adjacent Gaul, by her Celtic people. The religion and manners of the two countries remained the ſame during ten centuries: their priſtine language has continued the ſame in ſeveral diſtricts to the preſent day. Britain indeed was a mirror of Gaul at the recent periods, when the Romans invaded the Britiſh ſhores. The ſeveral tribes were united by a polity which allowed but ſlight ties: they practiſed the ſame religious cuſtoms: they were actuated by the ſame perſonal habits: they ſpoke a common language: but we ſee nothing of a body politic, which faſtened the diſunited clans by the kindred bonds of civil ſociety. Neither does there appear, within the narrow outline of their affairs, any event, either of warfare or colonization, which would lead a diſcerning obſerver to perceive that their principles had been corrupted, their habits altered, or their ſpeech changed, by the ſettlement among the aborigines of a new people.

If Europe was originally peopled by the gradual progreſs of migrations by land; if the neareſt continent colonized the adjacent iſlands; if the ſhores of South Britain were thus peopled from Gaul, we may thence infer, that the northern diſtricts of the ſame iſland were ſettled by migrants from the ſouth, who were incited by curioſity, or urged by intereſt, to ſearch for new ſettlements, while the original impulſe yet produced its early effects. This reaſoning is confirmed by facts. It will be found, that the Celtic tribes of North Britain practiſed the ſame worſhip, followed the ſame manners, and ſpoke the ſame language: and theſe circumſtances are proofs which demonſtrate the ſameneſs of the people, with greater conviction than the fanciful theories of philoſophers, or the abſurder intimations of ignorant chroniclers.

In every hiſtory it is of the greateſt importance to aſcertain the origin of the people, whoſe riſe, and progreſs, and fortune, it is propoſed to inveſtigate. But in an account of North Britain, that object becomes ſtill more important, when it is conſidered how often its aborigines have been traced to various ſources, and how much its annals are involved in obſcurity. Whether the aborigines of North Britain were of Gaelic or Gothic origin has been vehemently and obſtinately debated. The lineage and the chronology of the Caledonians, the Picts, and the Scots, have been inveſtigated with the zeal of party rather than the intelligence and candour of rational inquirers, who examine much more than diſpute.

It

It has been obſerved, that the Britiſh iſles were peopled by Celtic tribes in the moſt early ages. Theſe ſettlements were made while only one race of men inhabited weſtern Europe. The Gothic migrations, which are but recent, when compared with the colonization of Europe, had not then begun. And from thoſe intimations we might eaſily infer, that the Gauliſh tribes, who planted the ſouthern parts of Britain, found a ready courſe throughout every diviſion of it, and a final ſettlement in the northern diſtricts of the ſame iſland. North Britain, during the firſt century, is a ſmall but genuine mirror of Gaul during the ſame age. North Britain was inhabited by one-and-twenty clans of Gaelic people, whoſe polity, like that of their Gaelic progenitors, did not admit of very ſtrong ties of political union. They profeſſed the ſame religious tenets as the Gauls, and performed the ſame ſacred rites: their ſtone monuments were the ſame, as we know from remains. Their principles of action, their modes of life, their uſages of burial, were equally Gaelic: and, above all, their expreſſive language, which ſtill exiſts, for the examination of thoſe who delight in ſuch lore, was the pureſt Celtic.

To leave no doubt with regard to the aborigines of North Britain, which is of ſuch importance to the truth of hiſtory, Mr. Chalmers ſubjoins copious proofs of that ſimple notion of their original ſettlement. Theſe proofs conſiſt of a compariſon between the names of places in South Britain and the ſame names in North Britain, under the following heads: 1. Promontories, hills, and harbours: 2. Rivers, rivulets, and waters: 3. Miſcellaneous names of particular diſtricts. The identity of the names of places in both the diviſions of our iſland being certain, as well the fact, as their meaning, no doubt can remain but the ſame people muſt have impoſed the ſame names on the ſame objects, in the north and in the ſouth of the Britiſh iſlands.

At the time of Agricola's invaſion, Caledonia, in its largeſt extent, from the Tweed and the Eden on the ſouth, to Caithneſs point on the north, was poſſeſſed by one-and-twenty tribes of aboriginal Britons, who were populous in proportion to the greater or leſs fertility of the diſtricts which they ſeverally occupied: the tribes on the weſt coaſt muſt have been fewer in numbers than the more potent clans on the eaſtern ſhore. Every tribe enjoyed the ancient privilege of being each independent of the whole; and only united under a pendragon when danger preſſed, and neceſſity demanded the authority of a ſingle perſon for the ſafety of the whole people, according to the Celtic principle of diſunited independence.

Theſe tribes were:

1. The *Ottadini*, who occupied the whole extent of coaſt, from the Southern Tine to the Firth of Forth; inhabiting the half of Northumberland; the eaſt part of Roxburghſhire; the whole of Berwick, and of Eaſt Lothian; having their chief town at *Bremenium*, which is undoubtedly *Rocheſter*, on Reedwater, in Northumberland. The Britiſh name of the *Ottadini* is ſuppoſed to be derived from the ſite of their country, which ſtretches out from the great river Tine northward, along the coaſt of the German ſea, and the Firth of Forth.

2. The *Gadeni*, who inhabited the interior country, on the weſt of the *Ottadini*, from the Tine on the ſouth to the Forth on the north; comprehending the weſt part of Northumberland; the ſmall part of Cumberland lying on the north of Irthing river; the weſt part of Roxburgh; the whole of Selkirk, Tweedale, much of Mid-Lothian, and nearly all Weſt Lothian; having *Curia*, on the Gore water, for their capital. Their Britiſh name is ſuppoſed to be derived from the many groves which in thoſe days added both ſtrength and ornament to their various country.

3. The weſtern clan of the *Selgovæ* inhabited Annandale, Nithſdale, and Eſledale, in Dumfrieſſhire; the eaſt part of Galloway, as far as the river Deva, or Dee, which was their weſtern boundary; and they had the Solway Frith for their ſouthern limit. The Britiſh name of the *Selgovæ* is ſuppoſed to be deſcriptive of their country; which lay on a *dividing* water, and which by the new ſettlers, who were introduced during the middle ages, was denominated the Solway.

4. The remarkable tribe of the *Novantes* inhabited the middle and weſt parts of Galloway from the Dee on the eaſt to the Iriſh ſea on the weſt: they had the Solway Frith, and the Iriſh ſea, on the ſouth, and the chain of hills, the *Uxellum-montes* of Richard, which ſeparate Galloway from Carrick on the north; and they poſſeſſed *Lucopibia*, on the ſite of the preſent Whithern, for their principal town; with another town, which was named *Rerigonium*, on the *Rerigonius Sinus*, the Loch-Ryan of modern maps. They are ſuppoſed to have derived their Britiſh name from the nature of their region, which abounded with ſtreams.

5. The *Damnii* inhabited the whole extent of country from the *Uxellum-montes* of Richard, the ridge of hills between Galloway and Ayrſhire, on the ſouth, to the river Eren on the north, comprehending all Strathcluyd, the ſhires of Air, Renfrew, and Stirling, with a ſmall part of the ſhires of Dunbarton and Perth. Their towns were *Vanduaria*, at Paiſley; *Colania*, in the ſouth-eaſtern extremity of *Strathclyde*; *Coria*,

at

at Caerſtairs, in eaſtern Clydeſdale; *Alauna*, on the river Allan; *Lindum*, near the preſent Ardoch; and *Victoria*, at Dealginroſs, on the Ruchil water. Such were the five tribes, who occupied, during the firſt century, that ample region, from the Tine and the Solway on the ſouth, to the Forth and the Clyde on the north, varying their limits, no doubt, as ambition preſſed, or weakneſs gave way, during the ſucceſſion of many ages.

6. The *Horeſtii* inhabited the country between the *Bodotria*, or Forth, on the ſouth, and the *Tavus*, or Tay, on the north; a diſtrict which comprehended the ſhires of Clackmanan, Kinroſs and Fife, with the eaſt part of Strathern, and the country, lying weſtward of the Tay, as far as the river Brand. From the natural ſtrength of their country, the *Horeſtii* are ſuppoſed to have derived their Britiſh name.

7. The *Venricones* poſſeſſed the country between the river Tay on the ſouth, and the river Carron on the north; comprehending Gowrie, Strathmore, Stormont, and Strathardle, in Perthſhire; the whole of Angus, with the larger part of Kincardineſhire; having their chief town *Orrea*, on the north-eaſt margin of the Tavus or Tay.

8. The *Taixali* inhabited the northern part of the Mearns, and the whole of Aberdeenſhire, to the Doveran; a diſtrict which included the promontory of Kinaird's head, to which the Romans gave the name of *Taixalorum promontorium*; and they had for their chief town *Devana*, on the north ſide of the river Dee, ſix miles above its influx into the ſea; being the *Normandykes* of the preſent times. They, probably, derived their Britiſh appellation from the *fair headland*, which is the moſt prominent feature of their open and pointed region.

9. The *Vacomagi* poſſeſſed the country on the ſouth ſide of the Murray Frith, from the Doveran on the eaſt, to the Neſs, the *Longus* of Richard, on the weſt; an extent which comprehended the ſhires of Banff, Elgin, Nairn, the eaſt part of Inverneſs, with Braemar, in Aberdeenſhire. Their towns were the *Ptoroton* of Richard, the *Alata Caſtra* of Ptolemy, at the mouth of the *Varar*, where the preſent Burghead runs out into the Frith; the *Tueſſis*, on the eaſt bank of the Spey; with *Tamea*, and *Banatia*, in the interior country.

10. The *Albani*, who were ſubſequently called *Damnii Albani* from their having been ſubjected to the Damnii, inhabited the interior diſtricts, between the lower ridge of the Grampians, which ſkirt the ſouthern ſide of the loch and river Tay on the ſouth; and the chain of mountains that forms the ſouthern limit of Inverneſsſhire on the north; comprehending Braidalban, Athol, a ſmall part of Lochaber, with Appin,

and Glenorchy, in Upper-Lorn; a country, as Richard intimates, ſurrounded with mountains, and repleniſhed with lakes. The Britiſh word, *Alban*, means greateſt, utmoſt, or ſuperior height; as *Gwyr Albanus*, conſequently, ſignifies the men of the upper mountains: the Welſh denominate *Scotland* by the appropriate word *Alban*, even to the preſent times.

11. The *Attacotti*, inhabited the whole country from Loch-Fine, the *Lelanonius Sinus* of Richard on the weſt, to the eaſtward of the river Leven, and Loch-Lomond, comprehending the whole of Cowal, in Argyleſhire, and the greater part of Dunbartonſhire. They are ſuppoſed to have been called, in the Britiſh ſpeech, the *Eithacoeti*, or the men dwelling along the extremity of the wood.

12. The proper *Caledonii* inhabited the whole of the interior country from the ridge of mountains which ſeparates Inverneſs and Perth, on the ſouth, to the range of hills that forms the foreſt of Balnagowan, in Roſs, on the north; comprehending all the middle parts of Inverneſs, and of Roſs. This territory formed a conſiderable part of the extenſive foreſt which, in early ages, ſpread over the interior and weſtern parts of the country, on the northern ſide of the Forth and Clyde, and to which the Britiſh coloniſts gave the deſcriptive appellation of *Celyddon*, ſignifying literally the *coverts*, and generally denoting a *woody* region. From the great extent of country to which the deſcriptive term *Celyddon* was applied, this name, in its romanized form of *Caledonia*, was, in after times, extended to the whole peninſula, on the northern ſide of the Forth and Clyde.

13. The *Cantæ* inhabited the eaſt of Roſsſhire, from the æſtuary of Varar on the ſouth, to the Abona, or Dornoch Frith, on the north; having *Loxa*, or Cromarty Frith, which indented their country in the centre, and a ridge of hills, the *Uxellum montes*, on the weſt.

14. The ſouth eaſtern coaſt of Sutherland was inhabited by the *Logi*, whoſe country extended from the Abona, or Dornoch Frith, on the ſouth-weſt, to the river *Ila* on the eaſt. The Logi, whoſe country extended from the Abona, or Dornoch Frith, on the ſouth-weſt, to the river *Ila* on the eaſt. The *Logi*, probably drew their name from the Britiſh word *Lygi*, which was naturally applied to a people living on the ſhore.

15. The *Carnabii* inhabited the ſouth, the eaſt, and north eaſt of Caithneſs, from the Ila river; comprehending the three great promontories of *Virubium*, or Noſshead, of *Virvedrum*, or Duncanſby-head, and of *Tarvedrum*, or the *Oreas promontorium*, the Dunnet-head of the preſent times. The *Carnabii* derived

derived their appropriate appellation, like the kindred Carnabii of Cornwall, from their reſidence on remarkable promontories.

16. The ſmall tribe of the Catini inhabited the north-weſt corner of Caithneſs, and the eaſtern half of Strath-Naver, in Sutherlandſhire; having the river *Naver*, the *Navari-fluvius* of Ptolomy, the *Nabæus-fluvius* of Richard, for their weſtern boundary: they probably derived their appellation from the Britiſh name of the weapon, the *Cat*, or Catai, wherewith they fought.

17. The *Mertæ* occupied the interior of Sutherland; and probably derived their name from the Britiſh *Meredw*, or *Merydd*, ſignifying flat, or ſluggiſh; and conveying, perhaps, ſome analogous quality of the people.

18. The *Carnonacæ* inhabited the north and weſt coaſt of Sutherland, and a ſmall part of the weſtern ſhore of Roſs, from the Naver rivers on the eaſt, round to the *Volſas*-bay on the ſouth-weſt. The Carnonacæ probably derived an appropriate name from the Britiſh *Cerneinog*; ſignifying the country of points.

19. The weſt coaſt of Roſs, from *Volſas-Sinus* on the north, to the *Itys* on the ſouth, was inhabited by the *Creones*, who derived their Britiſh name from their *fierceneſs*; *Crewon*, or *Creuonwys*, ſignifying the men of blood.

20. The *Cerones* inhabited the whole weſt coaſt of Inverneſs, and the countries of Ardnamurchan, Morven, Sunart, and Ardgowar, in Argyleſhire; having the *Itys* of Richard, which is now called Loch Duich, on the north, and the *Longus*, or the Linne Loch, on the ſouth.

21. The *Epidii* inhabited the ſouth-weſt of Argyleſhire, from Linne Loch on the north, to the Frith of Clyde, and the Iriſh ſea on the ſouth; including Ceantyr, the point whereof was called the Epidian promontory, which is now the Mull of Ceantyr; and were bounded on the eaſt by the country of the Albani, and the *Lelanonius Sinus*, or the Loch Fine of the preſent day. The *Epidii*, no doubt, derived their deſcriptive appellation from the Britiſh *Ebyd*, a peninſula; as they inhabited chiefly the remarkable neck of land which has ſince been called by the Scoto-Iriſh coloniſts *Ceantire*.

In tracing the colonization of North Britain, Mr. Chalmers deſcribes the ſeveral lineages who have ſucceſſively inhabited this country in every age. 1. At the birth of Chriſt, the ſame Britiſh people, of Gauliſh origin, poſſeſſed both north and ſouth Britain. The Britiſh people remained, during four centuries and a half, notwithſtanding the Roman conqueſts, without much other change, than acquiring a greater or leſs civilization, from the long reſidence of the Romans among

them. And they left within every diſtrict of North Britain indubitable traces of their original colonization, in the Britiſh names of places which the topography even now exhibits to every inquiſitive eye. 2. Soon after the Roman abdication, a new people of Gothic origin came in upon the Britiſh tribes; ſettled upon the Tweed, and colonized upon the Forth; and, in the progreſs of their conqueſts, introduced themſelves upon the Solway and the Clyde. The Anglo-Saxons left every where, within the ſouthern diſtricts of North Britain, diſtinct traces of their ſettlements, by the names which they impoſed on places, as the local maps would evince, if hiſtory did not relate the arrival of the Angles, their conqueſts, and their ſettlements. 3. Soon after the beginning of the ſixth century, a ſecond people, but of Gaelic origin, came in, from Ireland, upon the Britiſh tribes of Teintire and Argyle; and in the quick progreſs of two centuries and a quarter, the Scoto-Iriſh coloniſts overſpread the weſtern iſles and highlands, where their deſcendants have continued unmixed, till late times, to ſpeak their Gaelic language, and to practiſe their peculiar cuſtoms. 4. At the end of the eighth century new migrants from Ireland ſettled amongſt the romanized Britons, and Gothic intruders, in Galloway; and over-running that great peninſula, by ſpeedy ſettlement, were, after a while, joined by the kindred people of Kintire and Argyle, in giving new inhabitants to the diſtricts, and novel names to the places, as far as the Clyde and the Annan. Such were the three races of men who were the only people that ever made permanent ſettlements in North Britain, if we except the Scandinavians who colonized Orkney and Caithneſs. The Britons were the firſt who became known, during the Roman period, by the name of Picts; the Saxons were the ſecond people, whoſe deſcendants have finally prevailed over the poſterity of the other two; and the Iriſh Scots of Kintire, Argyle, and Galloway, were the third race, who, by a ſingular fortune, were doomed to new ſettle and new name every diſtrict of proper Scotland. The year 843, as it is the commencement of the Scotiſh period, is alſo the epoch of the aſcendancy of the Scots over the Pictiſh government: the Scots now mixed with the Picts throughout *Pictinia*; and, as they overſpread the country, gave new names to almoſt every place, which they acquired by their addreſs, or arms: it was from this epoch, when the Scots became the predominating people, that their Gaelic language alſo became the common ſpeech, in proper Scotland, northward of the two Friths; that their policy was practiſed as the univerſal law; and their manners prevailed as the general uſages; and theſe repreſentations, with regard to thoſe

ſucceſſive

ſucceſſive ſettlements, are atteſted by the united voice of hiſtory, tradition, and topography. The chief objects of inquiry, with regard to the Saxon colonization of *proper Scotland*, are to trace the change, which certainly took place, during the Scoto-Saxon period, and which introduced Saxon, Norman, and Flemiſh coloniſts among the Gaelic inhabitants. In this period, an Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-Norman, and Anglo-Belgic colonization began, in the country beyond the Forth, and a Scoto-Saxon dynaſty commenced. The prevalence of the Celtic cuſtoms was inſenſibly ſuperſeded by the introduction of new manners, and the influence of a Celtic government gradually reduced, by the eſtabliſhment of an Anglo-Norman juriſprudence, and by the complete reform of a Celtic church.

The ſubſequent periods of Scotiſh hiſtory are, 1. The *Brucean* period, which began by the acceſſion of Robert I. in 1306, and ended with the demiſe of David II. in 1371: it only comprehends two buſy reigns. 2. The *Stewartine* period, which, as it commenced with a new dynaſty, in 1371, and extends to the dawn of *the Reformation*, in 1558, will be found to comprehend the unimportant reigns of eight princes. 3. From *the epoch* of *the Reformation*, five-and-forty years of civil conteſt, and the feeble miſrule of a corrupt people, will carry us forward to the acceſſion of King James, in 1603, when the crowns of Scotland, and of England, were united, by the voice of policy and of right. 4. Little more than the efflux of a wretched century, comprehending civil wars, domeſtic conflicts, and a memorable revolution, will conduct us to the neceſſary union of thoſe two congenerous nations. 5. And another period of almoſt equal length will convey the reader through great events, and proſperous times, to the union of Great Britain with Ireland.

Extent and Population. Scotland is divided from England on the ſouth by the Sark, a rivulet which falls into the Solway Frith for about half its courſe, thence by an imaginary line to the Eſk, near Kirk Andrews, by the Eſk to the influx of the Liddel; by the Liddel and the Kirkſhop Burn to its ſource in Carbic Hill, by an imaginary line which running over the ſummits of Pull-fell, Carter-fell, and Black-hall-hill to Cheviot-hill, and then tends to the northward, to reach the Tweed, near Coldſtream, and by the ſouthern bank of that river to its mouth. On the eaſt its ſhore is waſhed by the Britiſh ocean, on the north by the North Sea, on the weſt by the Atlantic. It was the coalition of the Picts and Scots, A.D. 843, the amalgamation of the Strathclyde Britons, in 975, and the annexation of Lothian, in 1020, that formed the kingdom

kingdom of Scotland, which in the progreſs of aggrandizement acquired its modern name, in the Scoto-Saxon language, from the aſcendancy of the Scots. The Scottiſh kings obtained the Hebrides, the Orkney, and Shetland iſles, in more recent times. Of the continent of Scotland, from Cape Wrath, on the north-weſt of Sutherland, to the Mull of Galloway, the length is about 275 ſtatute miles. The extreme breadth, from Buchanneſs on the eaſt, to Ru-na-Moan, on the weſtern coaſt of Roſsſhire, is 150 miles. And the neceſſary reſult of every eſtimate is, that Scotland, with her numerous iſles, in the ſuperficial meaſurement, contains many millions of acres; and in general contents, comprehends numerous lakes, and many mountains; much that is barren, and little that is fertile, except in its mineral products below.

MOUNTAINS. Scotland is generally rugged, even the eaſtern parts which are the leaſt broken, being diverſified with hills of conſiderably bolder elevation than thoſe of England. More than two thirds of the kingdom may be conſidered as mountainous, but thoſe parts which are peculiarly deſignated by the appellation of HIGHLANDS are Argyleſhire, the weſt of Perthſhire, and the counties of Roſs, Sutherland, and Caithneſs.

Streams and rivers are the beſt means of tracing the features of a country, and tracing the courſe and ramifications of its highlands, hills, and mountains. By theſe guides we ſhall endeavour to aſcertain the courſe and connections of the different ſcenes of heights which riſe in almoſt every part of Scotland. On the ſouthern border the firſt range which meets our eye commences with the Blackhall-hills, which form the boundary of the two kingdoms, and run due weſt nearly to the ſhore of Renfrewſhire. The principal elevations in this line are Carterfell, 1602 feet above the level of the ſea, Hartfell, 2582, the Lead-hills, 1564; Wanloch-head, Middlefield-law, and Loudon-hill. Connected with this chain are Tinto-hill, 2368, the high grounds overhanging the Ettrick, the Eildin-hills, 1330, Black-houſe heights, 2370; thoſe towards Peebles, between the Tweed and the Yarrow; and on the other ſide a branch ſtretching through Dumfries and Kirkcudbright to Wigtown-bay, on which we diſtinguiſh the points of Layfell, Blackfell, and Cairnſmoor. Beyond the Tweed is another lower ſeries ſtretching from St. Abb's Head, through Haddingtonſhire to the Soutrie Hills. The moſt diſtinguiſhed point is Lammermuir. In the diſtrict bounded by the Clyde and the Forth we diſcern none ſtrongly marked except the Campſey-hills, between the two rivers, running from eaſt to weſt.

Beyond the Tay is the vaſt maſs of the Grampian mountains, the ſouthern boundary of the Highlands, running acroſs the

the country from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, as far as Loch Lomond. On one ſide they are joined by the ſecondary range of the Oickill hills, and on the other to be united with a ridge, of which the moſt ſtriking part appears to run from eaſt to weſt, along the courſe of the Dee, and forms the Scarfour and Bengloer mountains. Among theſe it is impoſſible to overlook the bold elevations of Benlomond 3262 feet, Carintur and Ben Derrig 3550. Another ridge may be traced from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt between the Spey and the Dovern, which unites with the laſt toward the ſource of the Dee, and not far from the ſingular mountain Cairngorum, 4060. Theſe united ridges then proceed eaſtwards by the bed of the Spey and the two lochs Cricht and Laggan towards Fort Auguſtus, which is evidently the moſt elevated land of the country except the mountains. From hence a branch ſkirts the lochs paſſing north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt through Argyleſhire, and is diſcoverable to the extremity of Kintyre. Remarkable heights, either riſing from or connected with this ridge, are Shihallion, 3564; Benlawers, 4015; Benvolich, 3300; Ben Nivis, 4370; and the ſolitary mountain Cruchan Ben, 3300. Returning to the eaſtern ſide we notice a ſecondary range in the direction of the Dovern, paſſing the ſources of the Wrie, the Yethan, and Ugie, and terminating in Mormond-hill, not far from Kinnaird-head. Beyond the lochs another chain runs parallel with their ſhores from Morven north eaſterly to Mealfourvourny, 3060 feet.

The main elevation of the ground which we have traced to the ſpace between the two lochs at Fort Auguſtus continues through the middle of the kingdom ſending off numerous ramifications on each ſide toward the eaſtern and weſtern ſhores. In this the moſt diſtinguiſhed height is Ben Wyvis, 3720 feet. In Sutherland it ſeems to divide into two branches in the diſtrict called Dirry Moor-foreſt, of which one proceeds towards the northern promontory called Cape Wrath, having in its direction Kulloch-hill and Ben More, and apparently connected with it, Ben Auchnagowan. The other branch runs by the ſources of the Helinſdale into the center of Caithneſs, where it is terminated by the maſs of hills, of which the moſt diſtinguiſhed are the Pap of Caithneſs, 1919, and the Scarabin Hills, 1876.

Rivers. Comparatively few rivers of Scotland are navigable. From the abruptneſs of the mountains, and depth of the vallies, and the different forms and texture of the ground they traverſe, ſome of theſe rivers frequently expand in the hollows and ravines into locks, and as often reſume their original form; others purſue a direct courſe, ſometimes ſhallow,

low, ſometimes with the rapidity of a torrent, and almoſt all are obſtructed by rocks, ſands, and cataracts.

Leaving the ſmaller ſtreams to be noticed in the deſcription of the counties, we enumerate the principle rivers.

The *Forth*, one of the moſt noble rivers in Scotland, riſes near the foot of the Leven hills, and running eaſtward receives many conſiderable ſtreams, which deſcend from the heights in the midland region. It paſſes by Stirling, from thence winds in bold curves to Alloway, below expands to the breadth of four or five miles, again contracts at Queen's Ferry to ſcarcely more than two, and as it opens to the ſea again ſpreads to the breadth of eight or nine miles. In this opening which is called the Firth of Forth, are ſeveral good harbours and an excellent road. The largeſt ſhips may find anchorage within a mile or leſs, and veſſels of conſiderable burthen may aſcend with the tide, which flows as high as Stirling, a few miles above which place, the Forth ceaſes to be navigable. From the mouth of the Firth to Stirling is twenty miles and the breadth from Berwick to Fifeneſs is full fifteen. This river has a peculiarity with reſpect to its tides, which deſerves attention. For ſeveral miles, both above and below Clackmannan, the tides exhibit a phenomenon, called by ſailors a *leaky tide*. It happens always in good weather during the neap tides, and ſometimes alſo during the ſpring tides if the weather be uncommonly fine. When the water has flowed for three hours, it runs back for an hour and a half nearly as far as where it began to flow. It returns immediately, and flows, during another hour and a half, to the ſame height it was at before; and this change takes place both in the flood and ebb tides: ſo that there are actually double the number of tides in this river that are to be found any where elſe. In very boiſterous weather, however, theſe leaky tides are by no means regular: the water only ſwells and gorges without any perceptible current, as if the two tides were acting againſt each other. The cauſe of this ſingular phenomenon has not yet been diſcovered.

The *Tay*, the largeſt river in North Britain, riſes in Braid Albin, is augmented by the junction of numerous ſtreams; proceeds eaſtward, continually augmenting its volume, and expands into Loch Dochart and Loch Tay. It is afterwards joined by the Levir, a conſiderable river, which waters Glen Levir, proceeds trending ſouth eaſterly, by Dunkeld, in a winding courſe, receives continual ſupplies by the junction of other ſtreams; paſſes by Perth, is joined below by the Enn, forms a frith by ſpreading to the breadth of three miles, again contracts, and ſoon after opens with the German Ocean:

the mouth of the frith is embarraſſed with ſands, and is ſcarcely three fathoms deep, but within it deepens to ſix fathoms. It is not navigable to any great diſtance from the ſea, owing probably to the mountainous nature of the country which it traverſes in the firſt part of its courſe.

The *North Eſk* riſes in the north-weſt part of the county of Midlothian, from the lake called Lochlee, in the pariſh of that name; and after paſſing the ruins of the ancient caſtle of Innermark, and rolling its rapid ſtream for fifteen miles eaſtward, through the deep and dreary valley of Gleneſk, in Stracathro pariſh, joins the Weſtwater, which had been collected among the deep indentations of the Grampians, in the pariſhes of Lethnot and Navar; and as it proceeds is ſoon after farther augmented by the Cruick, which had deſcended from the upper part of the pariſh of Fern, on the ſouthern declivity of the Grampians; and at laſt, about two miles north-eaſt from Montroſe, loſes itſelf in the German Ocean.

South Eſk has its riſe alſo in the north-weſt part of the county of Midlothian, in the Grampians, from among the cliffs in the upper part of Clova, and after gliding ſouth eaſtward for about ſixteen miles, at the ancient caſtle of Innerguharity, adorned with extenſive plantations, mingles its waters with thoſe of the river Proſne and the brook Carity, which had rolled down through the glens or vales of the ſame name, in the pariſhes of Keveimuir, Leutrathen, and Kingoldrum; and then turning eaſtward, and being joined by the clear rivulet Norin, from the pariſh of Taunadice, and moving ſlowly along through a flat and fertile country, falls at laſt into the ſea at Montroſe.

The *Dee* derives its origin from the Braes of Mar, and after running almoſt directly eaſtward for fifty miles falls into the ſea ſouth of New Aberdeen.

The *Don*, which riſes a little further north, purſues a courſe almoſt parallel, receives the Wrie at Inverarie, and diſembogues itſelf into the ſea north of Old Aberdeen, within four miles of the Dee, both being more placid than the generality of the Scottiſh rivers, are probably navigable for boats or floats to a conſiderable diſtance inland.

The next ſtream of any importance is the beautiful river *Doveran*, which takes its riſe a few miles north of the Don, and proceeds north eaſterly, winding through Strathbogie and Strathdevon, till it terminates in the Murray Frith. It forms two little harbours for the town of Bamff, but is probably not navigable to any conſiderable diſtance.

The *Spey* riſes in the mountains of Badenoch, in the heart of Inverneſſhire, expands into Loch Spey, proceeds with a winding

winding courſe north eaſterly, receiving numerous ſtreams, and falls into the Murray Frith near Garnach or Garmouth. It is probably not navigable, for even at its mouth it is ſhallow, and its courſe is extremely rapid.

The next conſiderable ſtream is the *Neſs*, which is derived from the vaſt body of water called Lochneſs, and after a courſe of a few miles falls into the Murray Frith, at Inverneſs. This loch might be rendered extremely ſerviceable to the internal communications of the Highlands, as veſſels of ſixty tons have aſcended from the Frith to Fort Auguſtus at the head of the loch.

The *Beaulie* is chiefly compoſed of three leſſer ſtreams; the Farrur, Canich, and Glaſs, that give names to as many glens. The river formed by theſe ſtreams runs about eight miles before it enters the Frith of Beaulie, or moſt weſtern diviſion of the Moray Frith. On this tract are the falls of Kilmorach, a few miles to the weſt of the village of Beaulie. The banks of the river are covered with natural wood, and are bold and rocky. At one place the river divides, forming the beautiful iſland Aigaſh, on which ſeveral ſaw mills are erected. The Beaulie has a very valuable ſalmon fiſhing below the falls.

Several ſtreams unite in the ſouth of Roſsſhire to form the *Connel*, which paſſes by Duignealland, and falls with a copious ſtream into the Frith of Cromarty.

Proceeding northwards round the ſhores of Caithneſs and Sutherland, we obſerve no ſtreams of importance, either from their magnitude or the length of their courſe. The moſt remarkable are the *Helmedale*, which has a ſmall creek at its mouth; the *Thurſo*, which likewiſe forms an inconſiderable port, the *Strathy*, the *Arms-dale*, and the *Nevern*. The northern part of the weſtern coaſt affords ſtill fewer ſtreams, but inſtead is deeply indented with bays and inlets, or as they are termed lochs, which form good harbours, at leaſt, for veſſels of the middling ſize. The moſt conſiderable are *Laxford*, *Alva*, and *Broome*; the laſt a large bay ſtudded with iſlands extending twelve miles inland. *Gaze Loch*, and *Loch Torredon* are alſo large bays. The *Lanart* is a long inlet in Argyleſhire; *Oban* bay, a commodious harbour, almoſt land locked, and affording from eleven to twenty fathom water; the *Linnhe* extending to Fort William; and *Loch-fyn* and *Loch Lory*, two conſiderable inlets from the æſtuary of Clyde.

Continuing to the ſouthward, we reach the noble river *Clyde*, from which the diſtrict derives its name. After deſcending from the higheſt region in the ſouth of Scotland, and collecting a variety of ſtreams from the mountainous diſtrict of Crawford and Crawford-John, the Clyde, by the time it

arrives at the upper part of the parish of Lamington, has become a very considerable river; thereafter it winds around the roots of Tintoc, in a beautiful and serpentine course, among cultivated banks, for many miles. Its waters are clear, and it rolls over a bed consisting of hard gravel, and sometimes of great stones approaching to the character of rocks. It generally has fords at the distance of every one or two miles, which may be passed on foot; and bridges have been built upon the most important roads. The Clyde is here, however, a dangerous river; it is apt to swell very unexpectedly, in consequence of rain falling among the mountains where it takes its rise. During the heats of summer, the brightness of its waters is continually tempting young persons in the neighbourhood to the amusement of bathing; whilst its stony bottom, the weight of the stream, which often takes sudden turns, and the remarkable inequality of the bottom, frequently hurry them to destruction: no dry season passing without several lives being lost in this way. Between the parishes of Covington and Pettinain on the west, and of Liberton and Carstairs on the east and north, the Clyde seems almost to stagnate amidst the rich meadows by which it is surrounded, and for several miles its course is slow, and its waters deep. On approaching the parish of Lanark it resumes its former appearance, and flows along, in an expanded stream, over a stony bottom, till it approach the celebrated falls. There, on account of the weight of water contained in the river, the height of the falls, and the scenery by which they are surrounded, the Clyde is an object of much curiosity. The uppermost fall, called *Bonniton Linn*, is about two miles and a half from the town of Lanark; and in visiting it the traveller has to pass by the principal fall, called *Corra Linn*. Between these two cataracts the river is inclosed by a wall of rocks; at the bottom of which, overlooked by tremendous precipices, it boils and foams over the shelving and broken rocks which continually interrupt its dark and horrid course. Along the eastern side of the river a romantic road is formed, with fine woods on the one hand, and the river roaring below, in a deep chasm on the other. This road reaches from the house of Bonniton, near the Corra Linn, to the uppermost or Bonniton Linn. Above the Bonniton or highest Linn the river exhibits a broad, expanded, and placid appearance, beautifully environed with plantations of forest trees. Its course is towards the north-west, but it suddenly turns towards the north-east; and at the bending of the Bonniton Linn, where the river falls over a part of the stratum of rock which forms the termination of that along which the road already mentioned runs, from an elevated

point

point above the cataract, or linn, the whole body of the river is ſeen precipitating itſelf, with a dreadful noiſe, into the chaſm below, over the edge of a perpendicular rock. The height of the rock, including a ſmall fall immediately above the perpendicular deſcent, is about thirty feet. From this fall the appearance of the river is ſuddenly changed; its courſe is contracted; and, as already mentioned, it angrily boils and thunders, among rocks and precipices, down towards the principal or Corra Linn, at the diſtance of half a mile. The traveller returns along the precipitous path, already mentioned, which overhangs the river. We have ſaid that its ſides conſiſt of walls of rock: theſe are equi-diſtant, and wonderfully regular, forming, as Mr. Pennant expreſſes it, a ſtupendous natural maſonry, from whoſe crevices daws and other wild birds are inceſſantly ſpringing. Theſe rocks are rendered the more pleaſing, becauſe every jutting corner is covered with natural wood, the ſhade of which augments the magnificence of the ſcenery.

The *Irvine* and the *Garnoch*, riſing at ſome diſtance from each other, fall into the ſea at Irvine, and form a harbour once nearly choked up, but ſince recovered, and ſtill capable of improvement.

The *Air* and the *Blainock* are chiefly remarkable for the harbours formed by their influx into the ſea.

The *Nith*, a winding ſtream, riſes in the ſouth of Ayrſhire, is ſwelled in its courſe by ſeveral leſſer rivers, and pours a conſiderable body of water into the ſea ſix miles below Dumfries. Veſſels of conſiderable burthen aſcend with the tide to Dumfries. A little below Dumfries is the village of Solway, which gives the name of Solway Frith to the æſtuary of this river.

Shires. The antient national diviſion of Scotland was into the counties north and ſouth of the Forth, eighteen ſhires being comprehended in the ſouthern diviſion, and fifteen in the northern. Theſe ſhires were ſub-divided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks: for the preſent a general view of each ſhire is only given, preſerving the alphabetical order uſed in deſcribing the counties of England.

Aberdeenshire

Was formerly called the county of Mar, from one of its diviſions. It compriſes Mar Gariſet, Strathbogie, and the greater part of Buchan. It is waſhed on the north and eaſt by the Ocean, on the ſouth-eaſt is bounded by the chain of Grampian mountains which ſeparates it from Kincardin, on the

the ſouth by the ſhires of Forfar and Perth, and weſt by Inverneſs and part of Bamffshire. Its length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt is ninety miles, its breadth from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt forty-two. So great a portion of its border being ſea-coaſt, it has numerous ports which afford a ſafe and ready paſſage to the Orkney and Shetland iſles, Greenland, Norway, the Baltic, and the coaſts of Holland, Flanders, and France. The ſouth-weſtern part, or diſtrict of Mar, which borders on the Highlands, is well wooded, and produces excellent pines and birch, the bark of which the Highlanders uſe in tanning. The diſtricts toward the eaſt are bare, but not infertile, particularly the vale of Cromar; and the vicinity of Aberdeen is fruitful in barley and oats. The principal rivers are, the *Dee*, the *Don*, the *Ythan*, the *Ugie*, and the *Doveran*. They all abound with ſalmon, the catching and curing of which has long been a ſtaple branch of buſineſs in Aberdeenſhire.

Aberdeenſhire was formerly divided into four diſtricts, the names of which are ſtill preſerved, although they are not recognized in any political ſenſe. Theſe are Mar, Formarten, Buchan, and the Garioch. The diſtrict of Mar comprehends the whole country that lies between the rivers Dee and Don, and was again ſubdivided into three parts: viz. *Braemar*, the inland and higheſt diviſion, as its name imports; *Mar-proper*, or *Mid Mar*, being the middle diviſion; and *Cromar*, which is ſuppoſed to mean *Lower Mar*, the diviſion next to the ſea, in which ſtands the city of Aberdeen. The diviſion called Formarten extends along the coaſt from the Don to the Ythan, and is bounded on the weſt by a ridge of low hills near Old Meldrum, which ſeparate it from the Garioch. Buchan is the moſt northern diviſion: it includes all that country which lies between the rivers Ythan and Doveran, and is, in ſome degree, peninſulated by theſe rivers, the one of which runs eaſtward, and the other northward, into the ſea. This is in general a low champaign country, and capable of being cultivated by the plough except in a very few places. The Garioch is an inland diſtrict, and chiefly conſiſts of one extenſive vale, bounded on every ſide by a range of hills of moderate height, beginning near Old Meldrum, and extending weſtward about twenty miles.

The chief minerals in the county are granite, of which there is great abundance, quartz, aſbeſtos, lime of a bad quality, millſtones and ſlate; here alſo are found the ſtones well known to lapidaries by the name of cairn-gorm. On the bold and rocky ſhore of Buchan is that natural curioſity, ſo much viſited and deſcribed by travellers, called the Buller or Boiler of Buchan. Dr. Johnſon ſays, "no man can ſee it with indifference,

ence, who has either ſenſe of danger or delight in rarity. It is a rock perpendicularly tubulated, united on one ſide with a high ſhore, and on the other riſing ſteep to a great height above the main ſea. The top is open, from which may be ſeen a dark gulph of water, which flows into the cavity, through a breach made in the lower part of the incloſing rock. It has the appearance of a vaſt well bordered with a wall. The edge of the Buller is not wide, and to thoſe that walk round appears very narrow. He that ventures to look downward ſees that if his foot ſhould ſlip he muſt fall from his dreadful elevation upon ſtones on one ſide, or into the water on the other. We, however, went round, and were glad when the circuit was completed. When we came down to the ſea we ſaw ſome boats and rowers, and reſolved to explore the Buller at the bottom. We entered the arch which the water had made, and found ourſelves in a place which, though we could not think ourſelves in danger, we could ſcarcely ſurvey without ſome recoil of the mind. The baſon on which we floated was nearly circular, perhaps thirty yards in diameter. We were incloſed by a natural wall, riſing ſteep on every ſide to a height which produced the idea of inſurmountable confinement. The interception of all lateral light cauſed a diſmal gloom. Round us was a perpendicular rock, above us the diſtant ſky, and below an unknown profundity of water. If I had any malice againſt a walking ſpirit, inſtead of laying him in the Red Sea I would condemn him to reſide in the Buller of Buchan."

This county contains three royal boroughs, Aberdeen, Kintore, and Inverury, beſides the market-towns of Peterhead, Frazerburgh, Old Meldrum, Turreff, and Huntly.

Aberdeen, which is the principal city of the north of Scotland, ſtands at the ſouth-eaſt corner of the county, between the mouths of the rivers Dee and Don. It is divided into two municipal juriſdictions, called New and Old Aberdeen, each of which has a ſeparate magiſtracy; and, what is ſtill more ſingular, a ſeparate and diſtinct univerſity.

New Aberdeen is the royal borough, and is agreeably ſituated on a riſing ground at the mouth of the river Dee. It is a handſome city, having many ſpacious ſtreets, lined on each ſide by elegant houſes, generally four ſtories high, built of granite from the neighbouring quarries. The market-place, in the centre, is a large oblong ſquare, having on the north ſide the town-houſe, with a handſome ſpire; and adjoining to it the Tolbooth, a ſquare tower, one hundred and twenty feet high, alſo ſurmounted with a ſpire. In the middle of Caſtle-ſtreet is the croſs, the moſt complete perhaps of any of the kind in the kingdom. This town contains various charitable inſtitutions,

ſtitutions, of which the chief are the Poor's Houſe, Lady Drum's Hoſpital for old unmarried women, founded in 1663, Gordon's Hoſpital, the Infirmary, the Lunatic Hoſpital, and the Diſpenſaries. Beſides theſe, every incorporated trade has a fund for decayed members, and there are many friendly ſocieties for the ſame end. There is a fine bridge of ſeven arches over the Dee, built in 1530 by Biſhop Dunbar, and repaired, or rather rebuilt by the magiſtrates of New Aberdeen, in 1724. The harbour lies at the bottom of the eminence on which the town ſtands, and is a blind gut into which the tide flows, bending in a curved form, and ſeparated from the river, unleſs at its entry, by a low iſland, which has been evidently formed by the water gradually receding from the bottom of the eminence on which the town is placed. Aberdeen once enjoyed a great ſhare in the North American trade: at preſent its chief imports are from the Baltic, and a few merchants trade to the Levant and the Weſt Indies. Its exports are ſtockings, thread, ſalmon, grain, and meal, and ſome other articles. New Aberdeen has two private banking companies, who iſſue their own notes.

Old Aberdeen is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Don, about a mile to the northward of New Aberdeen. It is a place of great antiquity, and was of conſiderable importance ſo long ago as the end of the ninth century. It has a neat town-houſe, a trades-hoſpital for decayed freemen and their widows, with an hoſpital for twelve poor men, founded by Biſhop Dunbar in 1532. There was formerly a magnificent cathedral, dedicated to Saint Machar, which, with the biſhop's palace, fell a ſacrifice to the religious frenzy of the reformers. Two very antique ſpires, and an aiſle, now uſed as the pariſh church, are the only remains. The univerſities will be noticed in another place.

The county ſends one member to parliament, and Aberdeen, with Aberbrothie, Brechin, Montroſe, and Inverbervie another.

The population of Aberdeenſhire is 123,082. The number of houſes is 25,822.

Of the towns, Aberdeen contains 1797 houſes, and a population of 17,597 ſouls; Fraſerſburgh 511 houſes, and 2215 ſouls; Peterhead 836, and 4491 ſouls; Machar 1483 houſes, and 9911 ſouls; Huntley 498 houſes, and 2863 ſouls; and Meldrum 411 houſes, 1584 ſouls.

ARGYLESHIRE.

THIS county comprehends Argyle proper, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintyre, and Lorn, with part of the weſtern iſles.

This extenſive county formed a conſiderable portion of the antient kingdom of Scotland. It is bounded on the north by Lochaber, on the eaſt by Perthſhire, and on the ſouth and weſt inſulated by the ſea. Its extent from north to ſouth is about 140 miles, and its greateſt breadth, including the iſles, about ſeventy. Perhaps no other portion of land of the ſame extent, in Europe, is ſo ſingularly broken by water; for it is ſo deeply indented with bays, lochs, and inlets as to preſent a cluſter of peninſulas, and even the principal iſles are ſeparated by ſtraits ſo narrow that they may be almoſt conſidered as prolongations of the continent or of each other. Thus Adnamurcham, Ardgoneer, and Morven, are almoſt inſulated by Loch Linnhe, Loch Eil, Loch Shiel, and Loch Sunart; upper Lorn and Benediraloch, by Lochs Leven and Etine; middle and nether Lorn by Lochs Etine and Awe; and Knapdale and Kintyre by Lochs Tarbat, Gail, and Tyne; the ſound of Mull in ſome parts is leſs than two miles broad, that of Jura ſcarcely more; and many of the ſmaller iſles are divided from the greater or the main land by ſtraits of leſs than half a mile.

This ſhire, like other parts of the Highlands, is wild, dreary, and romantic. The vales and flatter diſtricts may be conſidered as comparatively fertile, but the principal part of its ſurface is broken by hills, rocks, and mountains, or preſents a melancholy and dreary waſte of brown ſhaggy heath. This cheerleſs ſurface, however, covers rich mines of copper, lead, and iron; the mountains feed numbers of black cattle, almoſt wild; the woods and waſtes, which are numerous and extenſive, give ſhelter to deer and every ſpecies of game; and the inlets, lochs, and ſtreams, which water every part of this ſingular region, abound with fiſh.

Argyle proper is a long narrow ſlip of land lying between the upper part of Loch Fine and Loch Awe in the ſouth weſt, and on the north and eaſt ſtretching to Lochaber and the boundary of Perthſhire.

Cowal is another of this cluſter of peninſulas, watered on the ſouth by Loch Fine and the Frith of Clyde, and like Argyle ſtretching on the north-eaſt to the Grampians, which bound Perthſhire. Both theſe diſtricts are mountainous.

The ſingular peninſula of Cantyre or Kintyre is ſeveral miles broad in the wideſt part, and ſtretches thirty-ſeven miles from north to ſouth. It is moſtly plain and arable, and conſiderably populous. Among its inhabitants are many Lowlanders, as they are termed by way of diſtinction from the natives of the Highlands, who have been drawn hither by the family of Argyle, to whom the peninſula belongs, to forward the cultivation of the land. Kintyre contains many villages, but

but no conſiderable place except Cambel-town. Near the ſouthern cape is a light-houſe 230 feet above water, on the rocks called the Merchants, which were dangerous to ſhips paſſing through the North Channel.

The Lorns, which are divided from Argyle proper by Loch Awe, and nearly ſeparated into two parts by Loch Etine, are tolerably fertile, bearing plenty of oats and barley; in ſome parts prettily wooded, and the moſt pleaſant diſtrict of the ſhire of Argyle. This diſtrict is about thirty miles in length, and ſtretches from Knapdale to Lochaber. It comprizes the ſubdiviſions of Barederaloch and Glenorchy, the laſt of which is highly pictureſque. The Lorns once belonged to the family of Macdougal, ſome of whom ſtill reſide, but were transferred by marriage to that of Argyle. The chief place of note is the caſtle of Dunſtaffnag, a maſſive tower built on a rock, an antient reſidence of the Scottiſh kings. Here was long preſerved the celebrated ſtone now in Weſtminſter Abbey, on which the Scottiſh kings were crowned; and ſome of the antient regalia were kept here till the beginning of the eighteenth century. The country abounds with druidical and other monuments.

Knapdale is parted from Cowal on the eaſt by Loch Fine, connected with Kintyre on the ſouth, bordered by Lorn on the north, Braidalbin on the north-eaſt and north-weſt, and on the other ſide waſhed by the ſea. It abounds with lochs, ſtudded with iſlands, in ſome of which are caſtles belonging to the different proprietors. The ground is principally paſture, though on the ſide of Lochaber are ſome diſtricts which produce grain.

It would be vain to attempt to particularize the numerous ſtreams and torrents which water this rugged county, but attention is due to the lochs which form ſo important a feature in its topography.

Beginning on the north, the firſt is *Loch Leven*, ten miles long and ſcarcely one broad, and twenty-four fathoms at its greateſt depth: it is a branch of Loch Linnhe. Its ſhores are irregularly indented: it is bounded on one ſide by mountains, and on the other ſkirted by the cultivated plain of Kinroſs, embelliſhed with groves beautifully diſpoſed. It contains ſeveral verdant inlets, on one of which is the caſtle, rendered memorable by the captivity of the unfortunate Queen Mary. This body of water abounds with pike, fine eels, and excellent trout. *Loch Sunart* is an inlet, twenty-four miles long and one broad, covered at its mouth by an iſland which forms two narrow channels on each ſide. *Loch Creran* is eight miles long and of irregular breadth. *Loch Etine* is a winding inlet

ſeventeen miles long, and ſcarcely one broad. It abounds with ſalmon. *Loch Awe* is a beautiful piece of water, about a mile wide and ten long. It is prettily ſtudded with iſles, ſome large enough to afford paſture, and all tufted with trees. The northern ſhore is well wooded, and on the north-eaſt are vaſt and dark mountains, particularly Ben Cruachan, towering to a tremendous height. At its foot is the place where the waters of this lake fall into Loch Etine. *Loch Tarbat* is an inlet twelve miles long, having eight fathoms water cloſe to the ſhores. It is bounded by hills varied with woods and tracts of heath. *Loch Fine*, a narrow and winding inlet, ſcarcely one mile broad, thirty from its extremity to the point of Lomond; in depth from ſixty to ſeventy fathoms. It is famed for its fiſhery, being frequented by vaſt ſhoals of herrings from July to January. *Loch Long* is likewiſe an arm of the ſea, from the Frith of Clyde, bounded by lofty hills and fifteen miles long. *Loch Gail* is a branch of Loch Loalg, five miles long and nearly one broad. *Loch Gare* is an inlet branching from the Clyde, five miles in length.

As the iſlands will be conſidered in another portion of this work, the chief towns in the county only are noticed here.

Cambel-town, which has riſen from a petty fiſhing town to a flouriſhing ſtate in the courſe of half a century, owes its proſperity to its excellent harbour, which is ſafe, deep, and capacious, and the principal ſtation of veſſels employed in the herring fiſhery. The town itſelf has ſent out about eighty ſail from twenty to thirty tons.

Inverary is in a romantic ſituation, on a ſmall bay, where the Ayr falls into Loch Fine. The old town conſiſted of a few miſerable huts, but the preſent was built in modern times on a new and elegant plan by the proprietors, the Dukes of Argyle. In the vicinity is the caſtle of Inverary, the principal ſeat of that noble family, and the whole of the neighbouring country is covered with woods of the fineſt timber, planted within the laſt half century. The principal inconveniences of this beautiful town are the want of freſh proviſions during the winter, and the continual rains with which it is deluged for a conſiderable part of the year.

The population of Argyleſhire amounts to 71,859. The number of houſes is 13,141.

The number of houſes in Cambel-town is 1000, of families 1582, of people 7093.

Inverary contains 275 houſes, and 2051 perſons.

AYRSHIRE.

THE county of Ayr is waſhed on the weſt by the ſea, bordered on the ſouth by Wigtown, on the eaſt by Kirkcudbright, Dumfries, and Lanark, and north by Renfrew; it bends in a curve along the coaſt; it is in length ninety miles from north to ſouth, and twenty-five where broadeſt from eaſt to weſt. The ſourthern parts are hilly but not mountainous, and the country populous and fertile, producing abundance of corn.

The greateſt part of the ſea oppoſite to this county receives the appellation of the *Frith of Clyde*, and is hemmed in on one ſide by the iſlands of Bute and Arran, and on the eaſtern ſide by the main-land or coaſt of Ayrſhire. The ſea oppoſite to the ſouthern part of the county ought be conſidered as a part of the Iriſh channel: it advances to ſome diſtance eaſtward toward the centre of the county, forming a kind of bay of no great depth, but of great extent.

Excepting toward the ſouthern boundary of Carrick, the mountains of Ayrſhire are by no means remarkable for their height. Carleton hill riſes with a ſteep aſcent, and is ſituated ſo near the ſea on the bay of that name, that at full tide there is little more than room for the traveller to paſs without being in danger from the rocks that threaten to fall on him. It riſes 518 yards above the level of the ſea. Knockdaw and Knocknorman are equally high; but being farther removed from the ſhore, and ſtanding near more elevated grounds, they do not ſo much ſtrike the eye of the traveller. But the moſt remarkable is Knockdolian, whoſe height is 650 yards above the level of the ſea; and as it riſes in a conical ſhape, it is both a moſt beautiful object to the traveller by land, and of ſingular ſervice as a conſpicuous landmark to veſſels at ſea when they enter the Frith of Clyde. The hill called Black-ſide-end, in the pariſh of Sorn in Kyle, alſo deſerves notice; it is between 1500 and 1600 feet high, and is the northern termination of a conſiderable ridge of hills; it commands a proſpect of almoſt the whole extenſive county of Ayr, the highlands of Galloway on the ſouth, the Iriſh channel, the rock of Ailſa, the iſles of Arran and Bute on the weſt, and part of the ſhires of Renfrew, Lanark, and Argyle on the north.

The principal rivers are the *Stinchar*, the *Girvan*, the *Doon*, the *Ayr*, the *Irvine*, the *Lugton*, and the *Garnock*; there are alſo ſeveral ſmall lochs.

The minerals are coal, iron-ſtone and lime: there is alſo a quarry of mill-ſtones.

Ayrſhire is ſubdivided into the three bailiwicks of Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham.

Carrick, the moſt ſoutherly diviſion bordering on Galloway, is thirty-two miles long, hilly and only fit for paſturage. It contains ſome woods and ſeveral lochs, one of which, *Loch Dun*, is ſix miles long and two broad. Although the diſtrict poſſeſſes no harbour, the people on the coaſt are principally employed in the herring-fiſhery, and diſpoſe of their captures to the merchants of Glaſgow. Carrick gives the title of Earl to the Prince of Wales.

Kyle, antiently called the ſhire of Ayr, is ſeparated from Carrick by the Dun, and ſtretches to the Irvine. It is 25 miles long from eaſt to weſt, and 24 broad from north to ſouth. Though hilly it is more fertile and populous than Carrick.

Cunningham is leſs hilly than Kyle, fruitful and pictureſque. It is divided from Kyle by the Irvine; on the north bounded by the Clyde, and on the weſt by the Frith. It is about 29 miles from north to ſouth, and 12 from eaſt to weſt.

In this county are two royal boroughs, Ayr and Irvine. *Ayr*, is of conſiderable antiquity, and appears to have been a place of note at the time of the Norman conqueſt. It conſiſts of two towns; of which the ancient royal borough, ſituated upon the ſouth-weſt ſide of the river, is the chief. That of Newton-upon-Ayr on the north-eaſt ſide of the river, has a different political conſtitution, and is a borough of barony or regality holding directly of the king. The royal borough of Ayr is ſituated on a level peninſula formed by the ſea and the converging waters of Ayr and Doon. The town conſiſts of a broad ſtreet with two rows of well built houſes and ſome lanes. Both Ayr and Newton-upon-Ayr are ſituated at a ſmall diſtance above the place where the veſſels lie, though a few houſes ſtand near the quay. The entrance to the harbour has always been difficult, on account of a bank at the mouth of the river, formed by the ſand which it brings down from the high country when in flood. The bed of the river is narrow, and the depth of water not above twelve feet, even at ſpring tides. Some ſhip-building is carried on here. Coal is exported to ſome of the Iriſh ports; and a few veſſels import timber and other goods from the Baltic.

Irvine is ſituated in Cunningham, near the river of the ſame name. It is on the north ſide of the ſtream, about half a mile above the harbour, ſtanding on a riſing ground and a ſandy ſoil: it is well aired and dry. It has one broad ſtreet, running from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt on the ſouth ſide of the river, but connected with the town by a ſtone bridge. The coal here makes a blazing and cheerful fire, and brings the higheſt

prices

prices in Ireland. Hemp, iron, and timber, are imported from the Baltic; grain, hides, and ſkins, from Ireland.

Kilmarnock is the principal manufacturing town in Ayrſhire. The chief diſadvantage under which it labours is its inland ſituation, being about ſix or ſeven miles diſtant from the ſea; but it is ſituated in the midſt of a populous and fertile country, in which labour and proviſions may be obtained for reaſonable prices. Coal is likewiſe found in its immediate vicinity in vaſt abundance, and may be obtained more cheaply and eaſily than almoſt any where elſe in the neighbourhood. The town is in a low ſituation, and its form extremely irregular. The inhabitants have long dealt extenſively in the manufacture of woollen goods and in making and exporting ſhoes and boots, beſides a vaſt variety of other articles. The cotton manufacture has alſo been carried on of late years to a conſiderable extent.

The other towns and villages in this county are of leſs importance. *Saltcoats* is worthy of notice, as the principal watering place in Ayrſhire. Another village, called *Stevenſton*, ſtands a mile to the eaſtward of it, under the ridge at the termination of which Saltcoats is built. The town of Largs is upon the ſea-ſhore toward the north-weſt corner of the county.

The population of Ayrſhire amounts to 84,306 ſouls. The number of houſes is 13,875.

Ayr contains 745 houſes, and 5492 inhabitants. Kilmarnock 1093 houſes, and 8079 inhabitants. Irvine 729 houſes, and 4584 inhabitants.

Bamffshire or Banffshire.

A part of this county was once included in the ancient province of Moray, which is now diſtributed among the three counties of Bamff on the eaſt, the ſhire of Elgin, or Moray properly ſo called, in the centre, and Nairnſhire on the weſt. The county of Bamff is irregular in its form; as a narrow part of it advancing eaſtward along the ſhore, interpoſes between the county of Aberdeen and the Moray Frith; and on the eaſtern ſide of Aberdeenſhire, on the ſea-coaſt the pariſh of Saint Fergus, immediately to the northward of the mouth of the Ugie, belongs politically to Bamffshire. In other reſpects this county is tolerably regular, ſtretching from the Moray Frith on the north, in a ſouth weſterly direction upwards to the foreſt of Mar and the heads of the Dee and Don in Aberdeenſhire. This, which may be conſidered, in a geographical point of view, as forming the regular county

of

of Bamff, is ſituated within 51° of north latitude, extends from Bamff to Gairmouth, along the ſouth ſhore of the Moray Frith, its northern boundary, about 24 Engliſh miles. The length, from the bay of Cullen, in a ſouth-weſt direction to Loch Avon its ſouthern boundary, is 50 miles. It preſerves an average length of nearly 20 miles, till within five miles of that lake, where it is ſuddenly compreſſed into a breadth of little more than 3 miles; making in all a ſuperficies of 1015 ſquare miles, that is 649,600 Engliſh acres, or 516,635 Scottiſh acres.

The whole, except the tract along the ſea-ſhore, may be deſcribed as a hilly mountainous country, interſperſed with many fertile vallies well adapted to the cultivation of corn and graſs. The hills are either covered with heath or moſs, affording little paſture, while from their bleak and barren aſpect, they have a gloomy and unpleaſant appearance.

The arable land, which bears but a ſmall proportion to the waſte, lies on the ſides and toward the bottoms of the higher hills, or on the ſides of thoſe vallies through which the waters have their courſes, or on the narrow level plains on the banks of theſe waters. In ſeveral of theſe vallies, where cultivation has hitherto been found impracticable, there is abundance of fine healthy paſture on which young cattle are reared to great advantage; the grounds being in general well ſheltered by natural woods of oak, birch, alder, and other trees.

The principal rivers are the *Spey*, the *Avon*, the *Fiddick*, and the *Doveran*, which riſes in Aberdeenſhire, but is augmented in this county by the ſtreams of the *Callrack* and *Blackwater*.

The minerals are lime-ſtone, marble, of which there is a curious ſpecies, called from the place where it is found, Portſoy marble, fleſh-coloured granite, aſbeſtos, and quartz.

There are two royal burghs, Bamff and Cullen.

Bamff, the capital of the ſhire, conſiſts of two principal beſides ſmaller ſtreets, pleaſantly ſituated on the ſide of a hill at the mouth of the Doveran. The harbour is bad, the entrance being ſubject to ſhifting ſands, which the erection of a pier has not entirely obviated. A conſiderable quantity of the ſalmon caught on theſe coaſts is exported from Bamff. Near the town, in a pleaſant vale watered by the Doveran, is a magnificent ſeat built by the earls of Fife. Bamff gives the title of Baron to a branch of the Ogilvie family.

Cullen was formerly a conſtabulary, of which the Earl of Finlater was hereditary conſtable, and was at that time known by the name of Inverculan, from its ſituation at the mouth of the burn of Cullan or Cullen, which at the north end of the

town falls into the ſea. The Earl of Finlater is hereditary preſes or provoſt, and proprietor of the whole town. The want of water is a great diſadvantage to the place, there being only one good ſpring in the whole pariſh.

Portſoy is a conſiderable ſea-port in the pariſh of Fordyce, about ſix miles from Cullen, and ſeven from Bamff. It is ſituated on a point of land projecting into the Moray Frith, which forms a ſafe harbour for veſſels of a conſiderable ſize.

Macduff, Fochabers, and Keith are conſiderable villages.

Bamffshire contains 35,807 ſouls: the number of houſes is 7955.

The town of Bamff conſiſts of 673 houſes, and 3571 inhabitants.

Berwickshire.

The appellation of this ſhire is obviouſly derived from the deſignation of the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, the *Tued* of the Britons. The whole area of Berwickſhire was called *Bernicia*, in the age of Bede. It was named in the Scoto-Iriſh Chronicle, *Saxonia*. And ſome time after the cloſe of the Pictiſh period of the North Britiſh annals, A.D. 843., this diſtrict acquired, from the Saxon ſettlers, the Teutonic name of *Lothian*. In after times it was probably called the *Mers*; but, if it derived this name, as Camden intimates, from its being *a march country*, the appellation muſt have been applied, after the year 1020, when this fine diſtrict was ceded to the Scottiſh king. But it was more probably called by this name from the Anglo-Saxon *merſe*, a mariſh, *mariſcus*, a naked plain. It did not, however, obtain the name of Berwickſhire, till after the commencement of the Scoto-Saxon period, when the whole country between the Tweed and Lothian had been placed under the uſeful regimen of an appropriate ſheriff.

The ſhire of Berwick is bounded by Roxburghſhire, and a part of Northumberland on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt; by the Britiſh ſea, on the eaſt and north-eaſt; by Haddingtonſhire, on the north and north-weſt; and by Edinburghſhire, and a part of Roxburghſhire, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt. The extreme length of this ſhire, from eaſt to weſt, is 31 miles: its utmoſt breadth, from ſouth to north, is 19 miles. Its area contains 446 ſquare miles, or 285,440 ſtatute acres. Its population in 1801, being 30,206 ſouls, evinces that there are 67 : 72 perſons to every ſquare mile.

Berwick-

Berwickſhire, in the tradition of its people, is uſually divided into three great diſtricts; the *Merſe*, *Lamermoor*, and *Lauderdale*.

Of the heights of this ſhire, the Lamermoor is the moſt remarkable range; forming an extenſive curvature of unſightly heights; and ſtretching from the weſtern marches of Mid Lothian, to their termination on the ſea, where the Lamermoor abruptly declines into the precipitous promontories of St. Abbs-head, Earnheugh, and Faſt Caſtle, which form ſome of the higheſt and moſt curious cliffs on the eaſtern coaſt of North Britain. The heights of Lamermoor riſe to 1615 feet above the level of the ſea. The tops of its hills and its higher ſlopes, are covered with heath; but its lower declivities admit of the operation of the plough.

In this ſhire there are other hills which run up to conſiderable elevations, though they do not aſſume the dignity of mountains. In the middle of this diſtrict riſes Duns-law, from a baſe of between two and three miles circumference, in a gradual aſcent on all ſides to the height of 630 feet, above the level of the ſea, and terminates in a flat ſummit of almoſt thirty acres. The Merſe, when it is viewed from the heights above, ſeems to be a perfect plain, though it is full of inequalities, and ſwells at Hirſel, Lamberton, and Dunſe, into conſiderable hillocks.

Berwickſhire has ſome coals, in the vicinity of which limeſtone has as uſual been found. Marl of every ſort abounds in every diſtrict; and in Chirnſide, on the banks of the Whiteader, has been found a ſpecies of gypſum, though not of the beſt kind. Freeſtone of various kinds and colours abounds: there is ſome ſlate, and quarries of building ſtone, which is ſaid to be impregnated with iron ore: pebbles for the lapidary's uſe, which ſeem to be of a good quality, are commonly found along the margin of the Tweed, as well as in the adjoining fields. At Hardwell a copper-mine was worked, but relinquiſhed in 1780: mines of the ſame metal have alſo been diſcovered in Lawder pariſh, and pure quickſilver in Hidehill. In Home pariſh there is a riſing protuberance, which is called Lurgie Craigs, and conſiſts of regular ranges of whin-ſtones, like thoſe of Arthur's ſeat, near Edinburgh. There are a few ſprings of mineral water; and near the ruined nunnery of Saint Bothan's, iſſues a ſpring which is called Saint Bothan's well, and which neither fogs nor freezes, and even prevents the freezing of a mill-head from the Whiteader, though the mill ſtream freezes every winter.

The chief rivers are, the *Tweed*, which firſt enters this ſhire at the point where the Leeder and the Tweed mingle

their kindred floods. The *Leeder* and the *Whiteader* riſe in Lamermoor, and carry to the Tweed the tributary waters of the Dy and the Blackader. The *Eden* and the *Leet* alſo contribute to ſwell the Tweed; and the *Ey* alſo, iſſuing from the Lamermoor, and being joined by its aſſociate *Ale* or *Alan*, winds through the north-eaſtern parts of Berwickſhire till it finds repoſe, not in the Tweed, but in the ſea, at Ey-mouth, where it forms the moſt central part of Berwickſhire. Theſe riverets, with eighteen ſtreams of leſs flow, are the conſtant drains of its ſuperfluous moiſture, and the uſual ſources of its abundant fiſhery.

Berwick. In the hiſtory of this ſhire, Berwick town is one of the firſt objects of juſt curioſity. This place, lying at Tweedmouth, on a dubious frontier, has an origin obſcure, undignified, and recent. It was not mentioned by Bede, who cloſed his uſeful labours in 732; it was not noticed by Hoveden, when he enumerated the churches on the Tweed, in 882, but it was called *Nobilis vicus*, by William of Newbrig, during the age of David I. It was at this period the moſt populous and important town of North Britain. At the epoch of the Scoto-Saxon period Berwick had certainly become a town of the royal demeſne; it was already a burgh when Earl David founded the abbey of Selkirk, while Alexander yet reigned in Scotland; and it became, during the reign of David I., one of the *quatuor burgorum* for holding a court of commercial juriſdiction under the king's chamberlain. Whether the town of Berwick gave riſe to the caſtle, or the caſtle to the town, cannot be preciſely aſcertained: generally the caſtle, by furniſhing ſhelter in rude times, produced a village under its walls, and there is reaſon to ſuſpect that ſome of the Northumberland earls may have built a caſtle, of whatever ſtrength, on the naked height, for his own accommodation. The caſtle gave protection to the town, and the town gave riſe to the bridge acroſs the Tweed, in thoſe uncommercial times. Under the beneficent reigns of David and his immediate ſucceſſor, Malcolm IV., Berwick flouriſhed. Under William the Lion, it became a place of mintage.

The importance of this town was known to Henry II. of England; and from the captive William, in 1174, he wrenched Berwick and its caſtle, which he retained while he lived. The policy of Richard I. relinquiſhed, in 1189, the caſtles of Rockſburgh and of Berwick ſpecifically, with every claim which he could make on Scotland. Berwick now flouriſhed awhile, but the fury of King John, as he retired through the Merſe, carried his torch throughout that devoted town in 1216. Yet it was reſtored and improved, during the many years of peace,

peace, under the benificent influences of the Scottiſh kings. In 1235 Gilbert, Earl Mareſchal, on his marriage with Margery, the ſiſter of Alexander II., came to Berwick, where he received his bride and celebrated his nuptials. In 1266 Edmond, the younger ſon of Henry III., paid a viſit to the king and queen of Scots at Berwick, where Alexander III. celebrated his birth-day. The demiſe of Alexander III., in 1286, without iſſue; the competition for his crown, and the ambition of Edward I., brought infinite miſeries on the contiguous nations. On the 31ſt of May 1291 the eſtates of Scotland, after ſitting at Norham, in Northumberland, were adjourned by the Engliſh king, to meet him at Upſetlington, within Berwickſhire, on the oppoſite bank of the Tweed. Here, in a few days, the eſtates of Scotland relinquiſhed the independence of the nation to Edward, to enable him, as the pretended lord paramount, to decide the conteſt for the crown. He ſoon repaired to Berwick, and an univerſal homage to the Engliſh king was here required, under pain of forfeiture. On the 28th of June 1291, the mayor, corporation, and inhabitants of Berwick ſwore fealty to Edward in their pariſh church, and many of the people of Berwickſhire and of other counties followed their example. Having thus obtained this important acknowledgment, which comprehended ſo many conſequences, Edward returned to England in Auguſt 1291; leaving the ultimate deciſion, with reſpect to a dependant crown, to a ſubſequent year. He returned on the 1ſt of June 1292: a parliament aſſembled at Berwick on the 15th of October 1292, and on the 17th of November, in the great hall of the caſtle, Edward adjudged the diſputed crown to John Baliol. A few feveriſh years of claims by the lord paramount, and of compliance by a dependant king, ended at length in avowed enmity. A treaty with France was ſought by Baliol; and in March 1296 an inveterate war began. Edward, as if prepared for ſuch an event, promptly marched to Berwick, which he took by aſſault, after a vigorous defence, where five thouſand perſons were ſlain. The caſtle of Berwick, which Sir William Douglas commanded, capitulated on the ſame day. Here Edward remained during fifteen days, fortifying this border town, and directing his ulterior meaſures. His army marched through the Merſe to Dunbar, where the Engliſh generals obtained a victory on the 28th of April 1296, which decided the fate of Baliol and the iſſue of the war. Edward now over-ran Scotland, and, aſſembling a parliament at Berwick on the 24th of Auguſt 1296, received the homage of the kingdom. In the ſubſequent year, however, Wallace gained Berwick town, as one of the conſequences of his victory at Stirling;

Stirling; but his important acquiſition was of ſhort continuance: the Scots retired from it as Edward again advanced to the Tweed; and he now placed a body of Gaſcons to garriſon Berwick till the fortune of Scotland ſhould be tried by a battle. He won the field of Falkirk, on the 22d of July 1298; yet the Scots continued unſubdued. In the ſubſequent year, they even beſieged the caſtle of Stirling. In November 1299, Edward aſſembled an army at Berwick, in order to relieve that important ſtrength; but his barons refuſed to advance through a rugged country during that gloomy ſeaſon. After alternate ſucceſſes and defeats, and the ill kept truces of various years, Edward proceeded, in 1305, to ſettle this litigated kingdom by his ordinance for the ſtability of Scotland, in virtue of which the caſtle of Berwick was left in the keeping of the chamberlain of Scotland, Sir John de Sandale, who was to appoint ſuch a ſheriff for Berwickſhire as he could anſwer for; and the chamberlain was entruſted with the town, for the profits whereof he was to account according, to the extent which had been made by the king's command after its conqueſt. The coronation of Robert Bruce, on the 27th of March 1306, brought with it a freſh war, which was not leſs bloody than the former, but more fortunate for the intereſts of Bruce and the independence of Scotland. Edward I., with his dying breath, ordered the vigorous proſecution of hoſtilities; but Edward II., as he was oppoſed by the ſkill, and valour, and fortune of Bruce, carried them on without ſucceſs. Berwick, after many changes, returned to its antient allegiance, under Robert Bruce, in 1318. On that occaſion the town again became an important part of North Britain. That great prince marked the importance which he annexed to its acquiſition by ſtrengthening its defences and reſiding within its caſtle; and he granted conſiderable annuities out of the revenues of the town. In many enſuing conflicts, which were fought by various barons, Berwick town and caſtle were often loſt and regained, but in 1482 they were finally ceded by the treaſonous intrigue of the Duke of Albany, and never recovered by Scotland. The Engliſh now regarding Berwick as their own, made it the eaſtern mart of the Scottiſh trade in the time of Edward IV.; as it was by nature the iſſue of the products which the countries on the Tweed and Tiviot could ſpare. In 1551, Berwick was made a free town, independent both of England and Scotland. As King James was received with the warmeſt gratulations by the people of Berwick, he ſeems to have been equally ſtudious to confirm to them their old privileges.

After Berwick had ceaſed to belong to North Britain, in 1482,

1482, this ſhire had no ſettled county town; Dunſe ſometimes, and Lauder often, but Greenlaw never, were uſed as the ſhire towns.

Lauder is the only royal borough within this county. As a kirk town, it is as ancient as the reign of David I., if not older. From him, however, Hugh Morville obtained Lauder, with its territory on the Leeder water. Like the other great ſettlers, Hugh Morville having obtained a diſtrict, built a caſtle, a church, a mill, and a brewhouſe, for the convenience of his followers. Lauder has 339 houſes, inhabited by 1760 perſons.

Greenlaw, the county town, ſtands on the White-Ader, twelve miles from Lauder on the weſt, and twenty from Berwick on the eaſt; it has 258 houſes, and 1270 inhabitants.

Dunſe was the ſeat of a kirk during the twelfth century: it ſtood originally on the ſummit of the hill, pleonaſtically called Duns-law; and which riſes gradually 650 feet above the level of the ſea. At the head of the plain which ſtretches from the mouth of the Tweed in the centre of the ſhire, ſtands the modern town of Dunſe, having the Lamermoor hills on the weſt, north, and eaſt. The houſes are 449, the population 3157.

Bute.

This county conſiſts entirely of iſlands, forming part of the Hebrides, which will be noticed in a future page.

Caithness.

The county of Caithneſs forms the north-eaſt corner of the iſland of Great Britain. It is a ſort of irregular triangle, two ſides of which are ſea-coaſt, and the baſe or weſtern ſide is the boundary of the county of Sutherland. The north-weſtern part, which is the point of the triangle oppoſite to the baſe, is Dungis Bay Head, or Duncan's Bay Head, which has long been conſidered as the moſt northern part of the Iſland, and adjacent to which the celebrated John o'-Groat's houſe is placed. It is indeed ſaid that, by late obſervations, Dunnet Head, in the ſame county, appears to be ſituated ſomewhat further to the north than Duncan's Bay Head. The north boundary of the county of Caithneſs, from the mouth of the river Hallowdale on the weſt, to Duncan's Bay Head on the eaſt, conſiſts of the North Sea and the ſtrait called the Pentland

land Frith, which divides the main land of Scotland from the Orkney Iſlands. From Duncan's Bay Head, the coaſt proceeds in a direction tending upon the whole greatly toward the ſouth-weſt; and here the county is bounded by the German Ocean. The boundary on the weſt, and partly on the ſouth-weſt, is the county of Sutherland, as already mentioned. Caithneſs extends thirty-five miles from north to ſouth, and about twenty-two miles from eaſt to weſt.

The territory of the county is in general flat, but the country aſcends gradually from the ſea on both ſides toward the county of Sutherland; and along that boundary it riſes into conſiderable hills, where the Erſe language is ſpoken, and which is conſidered as forming a part of the Highlands of Scotland; but except toward this weſtern elevated boundary, which runs along the baſe of the peninſula of Caithneſs from ſea to ſea, the county may be conſidered as one of the moſt level tracts in Scotland.

Caithneſs, on account of the little diſtance of any part of it from the ſea, can have no large rivers; but it is abundantly ſupplied with water. The chief of its ſtreams are the waters of *Thurſo* and *Wick*, the one of which runs into the North Sea or into Dunnet Bay at the town of Thurſo, and the other into the German Ocean, on the eaſt, at the town of Wick. The Thurſo is noted on account of a moſt incredible draught of ſalmon taken at once on the 23d of July, O. S. 1743-4. The number amounted to 2560 ſalmon. They were taken in what is called the Cruive Pool, above the town of Thurſo. The river Wick is augmented by two ſtreams, one from the loch of Toftingale, and the other from the loch of Watten. Beſide theſe, the county contains a variety of ſmaller ſtreams, with great numbers of inconſiderable lakes. In the upland pariſh of Halkirk the lakes are no leſs than twenty-four, great and ſmall. The moſt conſiderable are the lochs of *Cathel*, *Lochmore*, and *Lochmeady*; but the largeſt is that of Cathel. It is three miles long, two broad, if not more, very deep, and almoſt perpetually full to its fartheſt banks. In the pariſh of Reay, in the ſame quarter of the county, are alſo to be found a number of ſmall lakes; and likewiſe in the more eaſtern part of the county, are *Swiney*, *Alterwell*, and *Weſter Lochs*, beſide a variety of others. In the pariſh of Olrick, the *Loch* of *Duran* is nearly three miles in circumference, but has b partially drained.

Underneath the rocks in this county are many c tending up a conſiderable way, and acceſſible only b boats. In theſe hideous caverns, as viſitors advance of the ſun is gradually excluded, till at laſt they a-

in utter darkneſs, and recourſe muſt be had to torches before they reach the ſtrand. Along the ſhelving ſides of the caves many cormorants neſtle and reſt; and the report of a gun reſounds with a moſt tremendous noiſe. In the ſeaſon for ſeal-catching, the fiſhermen as ſilently as poſſible land in boats at the head of the caves on the beach, where they find numbers of ſeals, which they kill with bludgeons for their oil. In the egreſs from theſe caves the gradual light of the ſun is enjoyed with double ſatisfaction. The magnificence of the ſcene is heightened by many rocky pyramids of immenſe height, riſing at ſome diſtance out of the ſea. Curious petrifactions, ſome of them meaſuring from two to three feet in length, are found in ſome of theſe caves. On the eſtate of Hempriggs, in the mouth of a creek, one very remarkable rock forms a ſmall iſland, about a gun ſhot in length and 24 feet in width, covered with green and open at the top, where ſea-fowls neſtle. It is ſupported by two oblong pillars completely interſected, ſo widely that a boat can eaſily paſs through, and ſo regularly, that it appears more like the work of art than of nature.

On the northern ſide of the coaſt alſo, and indeed almoſt all around it, are a great variety of fantaſtic caverns, formed in all probability by the action of the waters of the tempeſtuous ocean. In the pariſh of Reay, on the ſhore a number of ſmall caves are found; and in particular one with a ſtrong natural arch, covered with green turf, in a level with the adjacent ground and leading over a chaſm about forty feet deep, into which the tide flows.

The minerals of this county have not hitherto proved of much value. Whinſtone, granite, and freeſtone are found; and lime and marl are not wanting. The only fuel which the country produces is peat; which, however, is in great abundance. Great hopes have at different times been entertained that coal might be obtained; a mineral reſembling coal has indeed been diſcovered, which emits a hot vivid flame when burning, but without much diſſolution of parts, or diminution of ſize, after it becomes extinct; ſo that inſtead of coal, it ſeems to be an earthy ſubſtance impregnated with volatile inflammable matter. In the burn of Hempſter is found white ſpar of the pureſt quality. When put into the fire, a very ſlight degree of heat makes it throw out a conſiderable portion of phoſphoric light, which gradually decays as the ſtone cools, and is again recruited as the ſtone is heated anew. When reduced to a powder, it puts on an exceedingly brilliant and beautiful appearance during ignition. In electrical experiments it is a non-conductor; nor does it ſeem ſoluble in acids. In the pariſh of Reay a ſlender vein of *red ore* has been diſcovered,

 but

but in circumſtances that afforded no inducements to work it. Iron ore is found in the ſame neighbourhood. Near Thurſo are a ſmall vein of yellow mundick, conſiderable quantities of white mundick, and a regular vein of heavy ſpar mixed with lead and chryſtals three feet in breadth; but the mine has never been wrought. A copper mine, near the old caſtle of Wick, was once begun to be wrought, but the undertaking was dropped.

This county contains one royal borough, Wick, on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt, and alſo the town of Thurſo on the north coaſt.

Wick ſtands on the eſtuary of a ſmall river of the ſame name. The town is ſmall, but it is the county town or capital of the ſhire, and conſequently the ſeat of the ſheriff-court. Along with Kirkwall, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tain, it ſends a member to parliament.

The town of *Thurſo*, on the northern ſide of the coaſt of Caithneſs, ſtands at the extremity of a ſpacious and beautiful bay, being the weſtern part or branch of the Bay of Dunnet, where the river Thurſo falls into the ſea. It is irregularly built, containing no edifices of any note except the church, which is an old ſubſtantial Gothic building in good repair. A new town on a regular plan, is beginning to be feued on the banks of the river, in a pleaſant elevated ſituation.

Among the antiquities of this county, one is moſt extenſively known by the name of John o'Groat's houſe. The traditional hiſtory of John o'Groat is this: In the reign of James the Fourth of Scotland, Malcolm, Gavin, and John de Groat, (ſuppoſed to have been brothers, and originally from Holland,) arrived in Caithneſs from the ſouth of Scotland, bringing with them a letter written in Latin by that prince, recommending them to the countenance and protection of his loving ſubjects of the county. They purchaſed or got poſſeſſion of the lands of Warſe or Dungis Bay, lying in the pariſh of Caniſby, on the ſide of the Pentland Frith; and each of them obtained an equal ſhare of the property they acquired. In proceſs of time their families increaſed, and there came to be eight different proprietors of the name of Groat, who poſſeſſed theſe lands amongſt them; but whether the three original ſettlers ſplit their property among their children, or whether they purchaſed for them ſmall poſſeſſions from one another, does not appear. Theſe eight families having lived peaceably and comfortably in their ſmall poſſeſſions for a number of years, eſtabliſhed an annual meeting to celebrate the anniverſary of the arrival of their anceſtors on that coaſt. In the courſe of their feſtivity on one of theſe occaſions, a queſtion

aroſe reſpecting the right of taking the door, and ſitting at the head of the table, and ſuch like points of precedency (each contending for the ſeniority and chieftainſhip of the clan), which increaſed to ſuch a height as would probably have proved fatal in its conſequences to ſome, if not to all of them, had not John de Groat, who was proprietor of the ferry, interpoſed. He expatiated on the happineſs they had hitherto enjoyed ſince their arrival in that remote corner, owing to the harmony which ſubſiſted among them. He aſſured them, that as ſoon as they began to ſplit and quarrel among themſelves, their neighbours, who till then had treated them with reſpect, would fall upon them, take their property from them, and expel them from the county. He therefore made a propoſal to build a houſe in a particular form, which ſhould be the property of the whole family, and in which every man ſhould find himſelf the maſter, and which ſhould ſatisfy them all with reſpect to precedency, and prevent the poſſibility of ſuch diſputes among them at their future anniverſary meetings. They all acquieſced and departed in peace. In due time John de Groat, to fulfil his engagement, built a room diſtinct by itſelf of an octagon ſhape, with eight doors and windows in it: and having placed in the middle a table of oak of the ſame ſhape, when the next anniverſary meeting took place, he deſired each of them to enter at his own door, and ſit at the head of the table, he taking himſelf the ſeat that was left unoccupied. By this ingenious contrivance, any diſpute in regard to rank was prevented, as they all found themſelves on a footing of equality, and their former harmony and good humour was reſtored.

The population of the county conſiſts in 22,609 perſons, who inhabit 4,573 houſes. Wick has 3,986 inhabitants and 890 dwellings; and Thurſo, with 786 houſes, poſſeſſes 3,628 individuals.

Clackmannanshire.

This county contains about 30,720 Engliſh acres, or nearly 24,975 Scottiſh acres. It is bounded on the ſouth-weſt by the Forth, which divides it from Stirlingſhire, and on the ſouth-eaſt by Fife. On the other quarters it is bounded by Perthſhire.

The Ochils are the only hills, or rather mountains, of this diſtrict. They riſe in general very abruptly from the valley, and form a fine defence againſt the north winds to the cultivated diſtrict of the county, which lies between them and the Forth. The moſt remarkable of the Ochils in this diſtrict

are, Denriat or Dunmyat, in the parish of Logie, and Buccleugh, in the parish of Tillicoultry.

The principal rivers of the county are, the *Forth*, the *Devon* or *Dovan*, and the *Black Devan*; there are also two lakes, called *Gartmarn-Dam*, and *Tullygurth-Dam*.

Clackmannanshire is extremely rich in minerals. South from the great ridge of the Ochils, the whole country seems to be a great field of coal, with its concomitant minerals, ironstone and lime. The mountains themselves also contain some of the most precious minerals. The rocks in the Ochils are composed of red and grey granite whinstone, and different kinds of schist; but among them veins have been found of copper and lead. In the western part of the district, on the estate of the Airthrey, in the years 1761, 2, 3, and 4, an attempt was made to work a silver mine. About fifty barrels of ore were obtained; four barrels were valued in London at 60*l.* sterling, but the work was abandoned as unprofitable. It is said that, at an early period of the eighteenth century, Sir John Erskine of Alva, by the aid of miners from Leadhills, discovered a valuable stratum of silver in the glen that divides the Middlehill from the Woodhill of Alva. It was first found in small strings of silver ore, which being followed conducted the workmen to a great mass of that metal. It had in a great degree the appearance of metallic, malleable, or what is called virgin silver; the produce was no less than 12 ounces of silver from 14 ounces of ore. The expence of the discovery did not cost above 50*l.* During 13 or 14 weeks the produce amounted to 4000*l.* weekly, and the proprietor is supposed to have obtained a sum equal to 40,000*l.* or 50,000*l.*, besides a considerable quantity of ore secreted by the workmen. When the great mass was exhausted, the appearance of silver gradually diminished, and the farther research was laid aside. About the year 1759 Charles Erskine, Lord Justice Clerk, having purchased the estate, a company was formed, which renewed the search around the old workings; and though some small strings of metal were discovered, they were not of sufficient importance to encourage the continuance of the work upon that level. A pit was therefore sunk below the spot from which the mass of rich ore was formerly obtained: and to facilitate the operation, the side of the hill was penetrated by a mine or level to carry off the water. In executing this part of the work, a large mass of ore was discovered, which at first was supposed to be silver, but upon accurate examination it proved to be the semi-metal called Cobalt, which is used in forming the blue glazings of China ware, and in giving to glass a blue colour. The cobalt of Alva was tried

at Preſtonpans, and found to be in no reſpect inferior in quality to that with which Europe is in general ſupplied from the mines of Saxony. It was now aſcertained that a conſiderable quantity of cobalt ore had been brought to the ſurface when the ſilver mine was formerly wrought, and had been ſuffered to remain for fifty years undiſturbed among heaps of rubbiſh: thus an additional quantity was procured; but the maſs of cobalt was ſpeedily exhauſted, as that of ſilver had formerly been, and it was found neceſſary to abandon the work. A regiſter of the operations however is ſaid to be in exiſtence; and that the different metals found, beſides ſilver and cobalt, were lead, copper, and iron, and alſo of arſenic, which always exiſts in large quantities united to the cobalt, and forming what is called a *mineralizer*, from which it muſt be purified before it can be converted into the blue powder uſed in the manufactories of porcelain. It may be proper here to add, that the late Lord Alva, one of the ſenators of the college of juſtice, from ſome of the ſilver ore which remained in his poſſeſſion, cauſed a pair of communion cups to be made for the uſe of the pariſh of Alva, with the following inſcription: — *Sacris in eccleſia S. Servani, apud Alveth, A. D.* 1767, *ex argento indigeno, D. D. C. Q. Jacobus Erſkine.*

The hills to the eaſtward alſo, in the pariſhes of Tillicoultry and Dollar, contain ſimilar appearances of valuable minerals. In the former of theſe pariſhes, upward of fifty years ago, in what is called the Mill-glen, a copper mine was wrought to a conſiderable extent by an Engliſh company. The thickeſt ſtratum was about 18 inches; and four different ſtrata were found. After the work had been carried on for ſeveral years, it was abandoned as having become unprofitable. In the ſame hills much iron-ſtone is found and large quantities of the ball iron-ſtone. In the ſame mountains farther eaſtward, above the village of Dollar, lead and copper mines were at one period wrought; and ſilver ore has been found at Glencairn, to the weſtward of caſtle Campbell, but the quantity has not been ſufficient to defray the expence of working it.

At the foot of the Ochils the coal field immediately commences; and throughout the whole diſtrict there are numerous collieries, from ſome of which conſiderable quantities of that mineral are exported. In conſequence of the abundance of coal and iron-ſtone, an iron work has been erected at Sauchie in the pariſh of Clackmannan, under the firm of the Devan company. They choſe a ſteep bank on the ſouth ſide of the river Devan for the ſituation of their works, where there was a conſiderable quarry; which induced them to try an experiment, whether the excavating the quarry would not give them more

more conveniency, and at a leſs expence than quarrying the ſtones and building their works at a ſmall diſtance from it. They have two blaſt furnaces for the manufacture of pig-iron; and to give unuſual ſteadineſs and uniformity to the blaſt of their cylindrical bellows, they ſend the air through a vault of ſuch ſize that it contains 10,000 feet of compreſſed air. Before quitting the ſubject of mineralogy, it may be added, that ſome ſtrata of uncommonly pure fine clay have been found in this diſtrict.

There is no royal borough in this county.

The village of *Clackmannan* is the head place of the county. It ſtands on the ridge of a hill; its ſtreet is broad and regular enough, but the houſes are mean.

The moſt conſiderable town in the county is *Alloa*; moſt of its ſtreets are narrow and irregular. It has a good harbour, and a quay ſubſtantially built of rough hewn ſtone, and forming a creek, here called a *pow*, into which a rivulet falls. Above the harbour is an excellent dry dock, large enough to contain a ſhip of 40 guns. Above the dry dock is a ferry, at which complete piers have been built on each ſide of the river. The breadth of the water at full tide is about half a mile.

The return of population is in the county 2,164 houſes, and 10,858 people. In Clackmannan 739 houſes, with 2,961 inhabitants; Alloa 817 houſes, and 5,214 people.

Cromartyshire.

The county of Cromarty extends along the ſouthern ſhore of the Bay or Frith of Cromarty. Its eaſtern part alſo is in contact, to a conſiderable extent, with that part of the German Ocean called the Moray Frith. The peninſula which includes Cromarty, together with a ſmall corner of Roſs-ſhire, is denominated the Black Iſle, or in Gaelic, Elander. A long ridge of hills, or at leaſt of elevated ground, covered with heath, runs the whole length of the diſtrict from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt; and the remaining territory declines on the ſouth toward the Moray Frith, and on the north toward Cromarty Frith. The whole peninſula has probably received the appellation of the Black Iſle, either from the appearance which this elevated tract of heath gives to the whole when ſeen from a diſtance; or from the circumſtance that, as this peninſula is almoſt every where in contact with the ſea, the ſnows in winter do not remain long upon the ground; and hence this territory affords a ſort of contraſt to the neighbouring Highlands, whoſe mountains, during a longer period, are ſeen covered with a dazzling

whiteneſs. The peninſula is above twenty miles long, five miles and a half in breadth, and contains an area of 107 ſquare miles, or 68,480 acres.

Its mineral productions are free-ſtone, granite, and marl. Coal has not been produced, although a ſubſtance ſomewhat reſembling it is found.

Cromarty is the only place that can be called a town, and it is not entitled to notice: it has 417 houſes, and 2,208 inhabitants; the return for the county is imperfect.

Dumbartonshire or Dunbartonshire.

Dunbartonshire was anciently denominated the *Shire of Lennox*. This county is of a very irregular form, bounded by the river Clyde and Argyleſhire on the weſt, by Perthſhire on the north, by the counties of Stirling and Lanark on the north-eaſt, and Renfrewſhire on the ſouth. It contains twelve pariſhes, *viz.* Dunbarton, Cardroſs, Row, Roſeneath, Arroquhar, Luſs, Bonhill, Kilmaranock, Weſt Kilpatrick, Eaſt Kilpatrick, Kirkintylloch, and Cumbernauld. The laſt two are ſlightly ſeparated from the reſt of the county by a corner of Lanarkſhire. The county contains 309 ſquare miles, and conſiſts of a mixture of natural paſture, wood, and arable lands. The firſt, including moors, peat moſſes, and other places inacceſſible by the plough, contains 46,739 ſquare Scottiſh acres; the ſecond, which is moſtly not arable, 9,883; and the third, 68,594. Total 125,216 Scottiſh, or nearly 159,356 Engliſh acres.

The Kilpatrick hills originate near Dunbarton, and ſo far as this county is concerned, terminate at Lochlomond on the north-weſt, and Kilpatrick on the ſouth or ſouth-eaſt. They form part of a remarkable ridge that, beginning near Dunbarton on the weſt, extends eaſtward to the vicinity of Stirling. After an interruption there, to give a paſſage to the Forth, the hills proceed under the name of the *Ochils* toward the Frith of Tay, where, after another interruption to give paſſage to the Tay, they again proceed north-eaſtward from Perth, under the name of the *Sidlaw hills*. The Clyde at Dunbarton paſſes their weſtern extremity, or rather perhaps finds a paſſage acroſs their tract, for beyond the Clyde the ſame range of hills ſeems to be continued weſtward by Greenock. In the north-weſtern part of the county, the mountains of Arroquhar and Luſs may be conſidered as the ſouthern continuation of the Grampians, from which they are divided by Lochlomond on the eaſt. Their precipitous and rugged

rugged ſummits, many of which are 3,000 feet above the level of the ſea, are for ſeveral months in the year perpetually covered with ſnow, and often hid among the clouds. Heavy rains have deprived many parts of them of ſoil; but in general they have enough for the luxuriant growth of ſome of the beſt paſture graſſes for ſheep, and they are ornamented with ſome of the rareſt mountain or Alpine plants in Europe.

This county is too long and narrow to admit of its having many ſtreams that riſe and terminate within itſelf. A great part of its weſtern boundary is formed by what is called *Loch-long*. Eaſtward from Lochlong another bay advances from the Frith of Clyde in a direction parallel to Lochlong. It is called the *Gairloch*, and is ſeven miles in length and two in breadth. Eaſtward from Lochgair and Lochlong is the celebrated *Loch-lomond*, the fineſt and moſt beautiful of all the Scottiſh lakes. Whether for extent or variety and magnificence of ſcenery, it is probably not to be equalled by any lake in Britain. Its beauties have been the ſubject of much deſcription.

In this lake they reckon about thirty iſlands, ſmall and great. Moſt of them are finely wooded, but only about ten of them are of conſiderable ſize. The principal rivers connected with this county are the *Clyde*, *Leven*, *Eurick*, and *Kelvin*. None of theſe have the principal part of their courſe within this county, excepting the Leven, which is the outlet by which Lochlomond diſcharges itſelf into the Clyde.

The minerals of this county are coal, lime, and ſlate.

The only royal borough is *Dunbarton*; it was made ſo by Alexander the Second in 1221. It is built on the eaſtern bank of the Leven, which almoſt encircles it: it has a good harbour, where large brigs are ſafe in all weathers.

This town has 329 houſes, and 2,541 people; the county has 3,482 dwellings, and 20,710 inhabitants.

Dumfries-shire.

The county of Dumfries is about fifty miles long from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, and about thirty-four broad from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt. It is bounded on the eaſt by Selkirk-ſhire, Roxburghſhire, and Cumberland in South Britain; on the ſouth by Solway Frith and the ſtewartry of Kirkcudbright; on the weſt by that part of the ſtewartry called the Glenkens and the ſhire of Ayr; on the north by Lanarkſhire, Clydeſdale, and Tweed-dale. Toward the ſhores of the Solway Frith, and a part of Cumberland, it is comparatively low and flat, but in every other quarter mountainous. The mountains generally

conſiſt

conſiſt of ſucceſſive chains of high hills, giving their direction to the rivers.

The principal waters are the *Nith*, the *Annan*, the *Eſk*, the *Orr*, the *Starr*, the *Kenn*, and a water called *Crichup*; theſe are all running ſtreams. There are, beſide, ſeveral lochs, as *Loch-Orr*, out of which the river Orr riſes, *Cloſeburn-Loch*, and *Loch Alrick*. The three rivers, Eſk, Annan, and Nith, divide the county into three great diſtricts, to which theſe waters give their names; the moſt eaſterly diſtrict is called *Eſkdale*, the middle one *Annandale*, and the moſt weſterly *Nithſdale*.

The mineralogy of this county preſents an ample field for inveſtigation, but it has by no means hitherto been ſufficiently explored. Gold, ſilver, lead, antimony, iron, free-ſtone, lime-ſtone, marl, ſlate, coal, and peat, have all been found; but the moſt valuable of them all for the purpoſes of practical utility, coal, has not hitherto been produced in ſuch abundance as to render it, throughout the greater part of the county, a cheap article: it has only been obtained and wrought at the two extremities, the north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt.

This county contains four royal boroughs; Dumfries and Sanquhar in Nithſdale, and Annan and Lochmaben in Annandale. Theſe four, with the royal borough of Kirkcudbright, in the ſtewartry of that name, ſend a member to parliament.

Dumfries being the capital of the county, as well as the moſt important in point of ſize and population, muſt be conſidered as the chief. It ſtands upon the banks of the river Nith, about nine miles above the place where the river diſcharges itſelf into the Solway Frith. The principal ſtreet extends full three quarters of a mile, the whole length of the town, in a direction parallel to the Nith. Toward the middle of the town, this ſtreet may be nearly one hundred feet wide. Beſides this there are ſeven or eight ſtreets and five or ſix lanes. The breadth of the town is, for two-thirds of its length, from a quarter to a third part of a mile. The houſes, being built of brick and a red free-ſtone, have a light and airy appearance. The ſituation of the town riſing gradually from the river, is beautiful and advantageous. It is neat and well built, well lighted and paved. The town-hall forms a part of a building erected about the beginning of the eighteenth century, and rather incommodiouſly placed in the middle of the high ſtreet. Under the hall are the weigh-houſe and town guard-houſe: this ſtructure is alſo adorned with a ſteeple and ſpire. Nearly adjoining is the priſon. The council-chamber, in a ſeparate building, is decorated with portraits of King William and Queen Mary, and of the late Duke of Queenſberry, the latter a fine painting. A Houſe of Correction has been lately built.

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There is alſo a theatre, and the inhabitants are accommodated with an elegant ſuite of aſſembly-rooms. There are two churches belonging to the eſtabliſhment, beſides chapels for epiſcopalians, methodiſts, antiburghers, and the ſect of relief. In a ſquare, nearly in the middle of the town, is a handſome Doric column, erected to the memory of the late Duke of Queenſberry. The fleſh market is a ſquare, ſhaded around, with proper conveniences behind for ſlaughter. The Dumfries infirmary was opened in 1777, and the patients reſorting to it have, ſince that period, been gradually and uniformly increaſing. Dumfries, being a very conſiderable thoroughfare, has two principal inns, a coffee-houſe, and ſeveral taverns. Every Wedneſday there is a weekly market for meal, grain, potatoes, butchers' meat, fiſh, poultry, eggs, coal, and various other articles. Saturday is alſo a market day for butchers' meat, fiſh, potatoes, and coal.—A ſingular cuſtom has long exiſted here. The county hangman goes through the market market every day with a *braſs ladle*, or large ſpoon, puſhes it into the mouth of every ſack of meal, corn, &c. and carries it off full. When the farmers refuſed any longer to comply with this cuſtom, the matter was tried before the courts of law, and the hangman was found to have a right to this perquiſite of office.—There are alſo conſiderable cattle fairs. The old bridge of Dumfries is of very conſiderable antiquity: it conſiſts of nine arches, meaſuring four hundred feet in length; its breadth within the parapet, 13 feet 6 inches; medium width, including the parapets, 16 feet 2 inches; height from the the top of the parapet to the water, 26 feet. This bridge, which croſſes the river Nith, was built by the lady Devorgilla, third daughter of Allan Earl of Galloway, who died in 1269: ſhe impoſed certain tolls and cuſtoms to be levied on all cattle, fiſh, corn, and merchandize paſſing over. A new bridge has been built ſomewhat higher up the river than the ancient one.

The royal borough of *Sanquhar*, ſituated at the upper part of Nithſdale, is an inland village of no great importance. From time immemorial it was a borough of barony. Its old caſtle of Sanquhar is a pictureſque ruin at a ſmall diſtance ſouth from the borough, ſituated on a high bank on the north-eaſt ſide of the river Nith, which it overlooks. It was once the reſidence of the family of Crichton. It has been a building of conſiderable magnitude and extent.

The town of *Annan* is in general well built. A few ſailors belong to it; and there are ſeveral ſloops the property of the inhabitants. The fiſhery on the coaſt, and in the river, affords ſubſiſtence to a conſiderable number of people.

Lochmaben,

Lochmaben, which probably derives its name from ſeven or eight lakes or lochs in its vicinity, is ſuppoſed to be a very ancient royal borough. It is remarkable for ſome curious veſtiges of antiquity, particularly two ancient fortreſſes which were ſituated in its neighbourhood. There is the ſite of a very ancient caſtle cloſe to the town, on a noble ſituation between the caſtle and kirk lochs, ſurrounded by a deep moat and foſſe.

Beſide theſe royal boroughs, the county contains a conſiderable number of villages, of which *Ecclefechan* and *Lockerby* are the chief. There are alſo *Moffat*, and *Graitney*, more commonly called Gretna, which is ſituated at the ſouthern extremity of the county, and has long been famous in the annals of matrimonial adventure for the marriages of fugitive lovers from England, which have been celebrated there. This is never done by the clergyman of the pariſh. Indeed, although no particular ſolemnity is neceſſary to the conſtitution of the marriage-contract any more than to any other lawful engagement in Scotland, and although any perſon may act as the celebrator of the marriage, to the effect of rendering the engagement completely binding, and the iſſue of it lawful children, capable of inheriting the property of their parents; yet ſevere ſtatutory penalties may be inflicted upon the celebrator and witneſſes of any marriage entered into without regular proclamation of banns. Hence irregular, or, as they are called in Scotland, clandeſtine marriages, are only celebrated by perſons who have nothing to loſe. The ſubject is thus ſpoken of in the Statiſtical Account of Graitney: "The perſons who follow this illicit practice are mere impoſtors, prieſts of their own creation, who have no right whatever either to marry or to exerciſe any part of the clerical function. There are at preſent more than one of this deſcription in this place, but the greateſt part of the trade is monopolized by a man who was originally a tobacconiſt, and not a blackſmith as is generally believed. He is a fellow without literature, without principles, without morals, and without manners. His life is a continued ſcene of drunkenneſs. His irregular conduct has rendered him an object of deteſtation to all the ſober and virtuous part of the neighbourhood. Such is the man (and the deſcription is not exaggerated) who has had the honour to join, in the ſacred bands of wedlock, many people of great rank and fortune from all parts of England. It is forty years and upward ſince marriages of this kind began to be celebrated here. At the loweſt computation about ſixty are ſuppoſed to be ſolemnized annually in this place. Taken at an average through the year, they may be eſtimated at fifteen guineas

guineas each; conſequently this traffic brings in about 945*l.* a-year. The form of ceremony, when any ceremony is uſed, is that of the church of England. On ſome occaſions, particularly when the parſon is intoxicated, which is often the caſe, a certificate is given. The certificate is ſigned by the parſon himſelf."

Dumfries abounds in places, whoſe names, connected with thoſe of individuals, bring to mind many narratives and deſcriptions in the border tales and ſongs, now ſo deſervedly popular. Among the perſons are the celebrated Johnny Armſtrong of Gilnockie, and the unfortunate Adam Fleeming, the lover of fair Helen of Kirkconnel lee. Another famous native of this county is the admirable Crichton, the account of whom by Sir Thomas Urquhart, furniſhed Doctor Johnſon with the materials for an excellent paper in the Adventurer. Recent criticiſm has aſſailed the veracity of Sir Thomas Urquhart with unreaſonable ſeverity. The ſtructure of his ſtyle, abounding as it does in quaint pleonaſm, naturally leads to much hyperbole, which a reader of moderate underſtanding would correct and reduce to its proper ſtandard, without imputing to the author the fiction of material facts. But the principal ground for diſcrediting this author is a genealogy of the Urquhart family, which is found in his works. "It is almoſt incredible," ſays Dr. Kippis, in the Biographia Britannica, "what a number of falſities he has invented, both with reſpect to names and facts. Perhaps a more flagrant inſtance of impoſture and fiction was never exhibited; and the abſurdity of the whole pedigree is beyond the power of words to expreſs. It can only be felt by thoſe who have peruſed the tract itſelf." The author of this cenſure ſeems to have forgotten, or not to have known, that Sir Thomas Urquhart was the tranſlator of Rabelais, and that the thought of his imaginary pedigree is merely derived from that of Pantagruel in the romance of the witty Frenchman. Both were intended to banter thoſe who invent, and to entrap thoſe who believe, every aſſertion however groſs and abſurd, which favours of antiquity, and which has for its object to exalt particular countries and families.

The population return of Dumfries-ſhire is 11,031 houſes and 54,597 inhabitants. The town of Dumfries has 1,275 houſes and 7,288 ſouls; Sanquhar 478 houſes, with 2,350 perſons. Annan to 471 houſes has 2,570 individuals, and Lochmaben places 2,053 perſons in 499 houſes.

EDINBURGHSHIRE or MID-LOTHIAN.

THIS county obviouſly derived its appellation from the city of Edinburgh, the chief town of the ſhire, the metropolis of the kingdom, but its origin has puzzled all the antiquaries, and has been propoſed as an appropriate theme for ſcholaſtic diſſertation. Edinburghſhire extends from eaſt to weſt 38 miles, from north to ſouth 15 miles. Theſe meaſurements give a ſuperficies of 258 ſquare miles, which contain 229,120 Engliſh acres, and the number of people being 122,954, there are rather more than 343 ſouls to a ſquare mile.

The area of Edinburghſhire may be conſidered as mountainous. The Pentland hills commence in Liberton pariſh, near the centre of the county, and extend in a ſouth-weſt direction about 12 miles, ſtretching beyond the boundary of the ſhire into Peebles. The Caerketan Craig, which is ſituated at the northern extremity of the Pentland range, riſes above the level of the ſea 1450 feet, amidſt other hills of great height. The Logan-houſe hill, which is ſituated toward the middle of the ſame range, and is the higheſt of the Pentland hills, has been found by the moſt accurate obſervations to be 1,700 feet above the level of the ſea at Leith; and is ſurrounded by other hills of great height. The Spital hill, which is the moſt ſoutherly of the Pentland range, riſes amid other hills to a great elevation. The Pentland hills, in Glencroſs pariſh, like the other eminences of that mountainous tract, conſiſt of different ſorts of whinſtone, and of other lapideous ſtrata, which are commonly termed primitive rocks. Next to the Pentland mountains, the Moorfoot hills are the moſt conſpicuous ranges. In Ratho pariſh, there is a ſmall congeries of hills, which run from north to ſouth about a mile and a half; and which are called Platt hills, from two hamlets that are ſituated on two of thoſe mountains. Through the pariſh of Corſtorphin, run the hills of this name, in a curving direction from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt for an extent of two miles, and riſe to an elevation of 474 feet above the level of the ſea. Between Dalmahoy and the river Leith on the ſouth, there are three hills in a line, which are called Dalmahoy Craigs. Between the pariſhes of Crichton and Cranſton on the eaſt, and Cockpen and Dalkeith on the weſt, is a continued ridge of hill, which ſtretches nearly ſix miles, from ſouth to north; and which does not much obſtruct the road from Edinburgh to Coldſtream, that croſſes its centre. Arthur's ſeat and Saliſbury Craigs exhibit a wild and romantic ſcene of vaſt precipices and broken rocks, which from ſome points ſeem to overhang

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the lower ſuburbs of Edinburgh. In any other ſituation than the ſingular ſite of Edinburgh, the Calton Hill, which has ſcarcely been noticed by touriſts, would be conſidered as an eminence of conſiderable height, as a rock of uncommon appearance, that ſupplies a walk of very diverſified views.

Edinburghſhire is well watered. The *Forth*, which bounds it on the north, communicates to this country many advantages of navigation, of food, and of fertilization. After the Forth, the *Eſk* may be ſaid to be the chief river, which is compoſed of two ſtreams that unite their kindred waters below Dalkeith, and glide in a deep channel into the Forth at Inverеſk. Several ſtreamlets which flow from Cairn edge, a hilly range that ſeparates Peebles from Edinburgh, form the commodious river *Leith*, which flows in a hollow channel between well-wooded banks. It afterwards receives the *Bevelaw Burn*, with ſome ſmaller rivulets; and, courſing in a north-eaſt direction 22 miles, it glides into the Forth, where its iſſue, which was of old called Inverleith, forms the port of Leith. *Amon* river, which riſes in Lanerkſhire, and runs through the ſouthern corner of Linlithgowſhire, firſt waters Edinburghſhire, where it is joined by the *Breich-Burn*. The *Gala-water* riſes in the Moorfoot range: it is ſoon enlarged by the greater volume of *Heriot-ſtream*, when both take the name of the Gala: it is joined in its courſe by *Luggate-water*, with ſeveral ſtreamlets, which drain the valley through which it glides. The Gala now purſues its ſoutherly direction for 10 miles, when it enters Selkirkſhire, and, after a wandering courſe, mixes its waters with the Tweed, which peoples it with the finny tribes.

This county abounds with minerals and foſſils. Beds of pitcoal ſtretch acroſs the country, from Carlops to Muſſelburgh, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt 15 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Limeſtone equally abounds, although it lies nearer to the hills. There is in this ſhire great plenty of freeſtone, and of good quality. Granite and whinſtone are found in every pariſh. In Pennycuik there are found milſtones, marble, and petrifactions. A copper mine was laid open in 1754, at Lumphoy on Leith-water, ſix miles ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh.

The mineral waters of this ſhire contribute to preſerve or to reſtore the health of the inhabitants. St. Bernard's Well, on the rocky margin of the Leith-water, has been praiſed for its good qualities. In Cramond pariſh there is a mineral ſpring which is called the Well of Spa. In Mid-Calder pariſh there are ſulphureous waters, like thoſe of Harrowgate, and in the more elevated pariſh of Pennycuik are ſeveral chalybeate ſprings. Two miles ſouthward of Edinburgh, is St. Catherine's,

or

or the oily well, which engaged the protection of King James, and is ſaid to have cured cutaneous and other diſorders of the people. As connected with the mineralogy of the diſtrict, an inſtance may be mentioned which occurred at the ſouth-eaſtern extremity of the county in the pariſh of Stow, of a movement of a ſpot of ground on the 30th July, 1735. The former part of the ſeaſon being exceedingly warm and dry, there was a great ſtorm of thunder with hail and rain. At Wedderlaw, a hill in Overſhiels ground, three miles up Lugate-water, the ſhepherd, ſitting at a ſmall diſtance, obſerved the face of the hill begin to move. The whole flock of ſheep being gathered on that ſpot in conſequence of the thunder, he immediately ſent his dog to drive them off. By this means the greater part were ſaved, though ſome went with the break or piece of land, which was carried down to Gala, and a great quantity of the moſs as far as Galaſhiels, which is reported to have ſerved the poor people in that village for peats the following winter.

In the pariſh of Invereſk is a curioſity, which is thus mentioned by Maitland in his hiſtory of Edinburgh: "About three miles ſouth-eaſtward from Edinburgh is ſituated Monk-town (vulgarly Mountain), ſo denominated from a priory of monks anciently there. At this place is a very great curioſity, denominated the *routing well*, which is a draw well in the yard of the manſion houſe, the area whereof, from the mouth to the water, is about thirty-five feet, and is ſo called from certain noiſes it makes preceding a ſtorm, ſometimes reſembling the beating of a copperſmith's largeſt hammers, then a noiſe like a ſhower of hail falling into the water; and at other times, by a violent bubbling, raiſes the water above a foot higher than its natural level."

Muſſelburgh has derived its name from an extenſive muſcle-bank which lies in the ſea below the town, and was probably the cauſe of its early population; as, even at this day, it affords a great relief to the poor inhabitants in times of ſcarcity, and at all times ſupplies the tables of the rich with a delicate variety. Muſſelburgh conſiſts in ſome meaſure of three villages: on the eaſt ſide of the Eſk, adjoining to the ſea ſhore, ſtands Muſſelburgh, properly ſo called, conſiſting of a broad well paved principal ſtreet, with ſome adjoining lanes. Above Muſſelburgh, to the ſouth or more inland, is the village and church of Invereſk, which gives its name to the pariſh. On the weſtern ſide of the Eſk, along the ſea-ſhore, Fiſher-row is ſituated. It is a very long village; and here the harbour belonging to the whole is placed. The buildings are more uniform, but meaner than thoſe of Muſſelburgh. Muſſelburgh is what

what is called a borough of regality, that is, an incorporated borough, where the ſuperior is not the king, as in royal boroughs, but a ſubject, who poſſeſſed in former times that extenſive juriſdiction and thoſe high privileges denominated regal, and which exalted their poſſeſſor to a ſort of independence upon the head of the ſtate, as the German princes at this day are independent of the Emperor. Muſſelburgh, before the Reformation, had for its lord of regality the Abbot of Dunfermline, and now holds of the Duke of Buccleugh as lord ſuperior of the regality, and pays to that nobleman certain ſums annually as quit-rent or feu-duty. The government of the town is veſted in a council of eighteen members, ten of whom belong to Muſſelburgh, and eight to Fiſher-row.

The name of *Dalkeith* is ſaid to be derived from the Gaelic language, and ſignifies a plain ſituated between two rivers. If this be ſo, it is perfectly deſcriptive of the ſituation of the village, which ſtands on a narrow ſtripe of land peninſulated between the two rivers already mentioned, known by the name of *Eſk*. The banks of theſe ſtreams are here beautifully wooded and embelliſhed with the ſeats of ſeveral families of the firſt diſtinction. The principal ſtreet of Dalkeith is broad and well paved; and the buildings, as uſual in Scotland, are of ſtone, and ſubſtantial. It contains a grammar-ſchool, which has long poſſeſſed diſtinguiſhed reputation; and to which, on this account, as well as on account of the healthy and agreeable ſituation of the place, the ſons of gentlemen are ſent from different quarters of the country. This village is not at preſent remarkable for any ſort of manufactures; and it is chiefly diſtinguiſhed on account of its well known and much frequented market for grain, which is held every Thurſday; to which are brought large quantities of all ſorts of grain, and more eſpecially of oats, not only from the neighbourhood, but alſo from the ſouthern counties.

There are in the ſhire ſeveral conſiderable villages; as *Midcalder*, which is pleaſantly ſituated near the river Amond; *Corſtorphine*, ſuppoſed to have derived its name from the circumſtance of a golden croſs having been preſented to the church by ſome French nobleman; *Croix d'or fin*; and hence Corſtorphine. Others derive it from Gaelic words ſignifying ſteps through a wet place; a circumſtance expreſſive of its ſituation, as it ſtands at the extremity of a moraſs, and in low wet ground. There are alſo *Cramond*, chiefly remarkable on account of its iron manufacture; *Pennycuick*, and the leſſer villages of *Laſſwade*, *Loanhead*, and *Gilmerton*.

Muſſelburgh has 1,469 houſes and 6,604 ſouls.

Dalkeith contains 511 houſes and 3,906 ſouls.

Elgin or Morayshire.

The county of Elgin, or Moray proper, forms the middle or principal diſtrict of the ancient county of Moray. Its boundaries, excepting along the ſhores of the Moray Frith, have not been determined by natural limits; as in the upper part of the county it is interſected in many places by diſtricts belonging to the counties of Inverneſs, Nairn, and Banff. In general, however, its form reſembles that of the county of Banff. It reſts upon a northern expoſure; its upper part towards the ſouth conſiſts of a portion of that very mountainous region which forms the head of the counties of Aberdeen, Banff, and Perthſhire, and which gives riſe to all the great rivers in the north of Scotland. As it deſcends on the north toward the Moray Frith, the country becomes more low and valuable. In general it may be deſcribed as bounded, therefore, on the north by that branch of the German Ocean called the Moray Frith; on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by Banffſhire; on the ſouth-weſt by Inverneſsſhire; and on the weſt by the counties of Inverneſs and Nairn. It extends about forty-two miles in length, and its average breadth is about twenty. Of this extent there are more than 200 ſquare miles, denominated the Lowlands of Moray, lying between the Frith and a chain of hills which ſtretch in a direction nearly parallel thereto, at the diſtance of about eight miles from the ſhore. This may be deſcribed as a champaign country, though diverſified by many gentle riſing grounds; which being all either covered with trees or cultivated by the plough, form a landſcape in general greatly ſuperior in beauty, fertility, and riches, to any northward of the Grampian mountains. The remainder of this diſtrict, about 600 ſquare miles in extent, muſt be regarded as a hilly country, divided into numerous fertile valleys along the banks of different ſtreams, which all terminate in the Spey, Loſſy, or Findhorn. The uppermoſt part of the diſtrict, called Brae Moray, is occupied by extenſive foreſts. The ſouthern parts of this ſhire are hilly, but abounding in good paſture or overſpread with foreſts; the northern, plain, rich, and fertile, producing wheat, rye, barley, and oats, and called proverbially the granary of the north.

The rivers of this county are the *Findhorn*, *Loſſy*, and *Spey*; the lochs are called Spynie, Cots, and Nabee.

The mineral productions are free-ſtone, grey ſlate, limeſtone, and ſome very beautiful agate.

Elgin, the capital, conſiſts of one large ſtreet built on the Loſſy

Loſſy in a delightful ſituation. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, and the ſtately ruins of its cathedral are ſtill remaining.

The town of *Forres* is agreeably ſituated at the termination of a ridge of hills on a rivulet which falls into the water of Findhorn.

The population of this county amounts to 26,705. The houſes are 6,126. Elgin contains 1,025 houſes and 4,345 inhabitants; and Forres has 691 houſes, the number of people being 3,114.

Fifeshire.

This county is on the eaſtern ſide of Scotland, and the eaſtern part of the county is waſhed by the German Ocean. On its ſouthern ſide it looks down upon the Firth of Forth; on the north, the river Tay divides it from the counties of Angus and Perth; on the weſt, the boundaries are the counties of Perth, Kinroſs, and Clackmannan. The county of Kinroſs encroaches deeply upon its weſtern ſide. From the unevenneſs of this laſt boundary, and from the manner in which it is indented by the ſurrounding waters, its form is irregular. By the moſt correct computation, its medium length from eaſt to weſt is about thirty-ſix miles, and its medium breadth, from north to ſouth, fourteen miles; and therefore the whole contents will amount to 504 ſquare miles, or 256,970 Scots acres, equal to 322,560 acres Engliſh meaſure. The extreme length of the county, however, from the weſtern point of the pariſh of Saline to Fifeneſs is upward of ſixty miles; and from Kinghorn on the ſouth to Newburgh on the north, is upward of thirty miles. Fife exhibits abundant inequalities of ſurface, but contains nothing that in Scotland deſerves to be denominated mountainous territory. The chief hills are the Lomonds, by which it is partly ſeparated on the weſt from Kinroſsſhire, but which are in no reſpect remarkable. In the eaſtern part of the county is Largo Law, very conſpicuous from the oppoſite coaſt of the Lothians. The Norman Law, in this county, is alſo conſpicuous. Several hills on the north-eaſtern part of the county give variety to its aſpect. The general appearance of Fife is uncommonly beautiful, and it is populous along its ſhores; but on aſcending from thence inland, it more or leſs ſuddenly aſſumes a conſiderable degree of bleakneſs of aſpect.

From its peninſular ſituation, the inland waters of Fife cannot be great or important. The chief of its ſtreams are the *Leven* and the *Eden*; the former in its courſe receives the

waters of the *Lochty* and the *Orr*: the latter is ſwelled by ſeveral ſmall ſtreams.

The lochs are numerous but not very conſiderable. The chief are thoſe of *Lindores* and *Killconquhar*, *Lochgellies*, *Camilla-loch*, and *Lochfettie*.

Few counties in Scotland poſſeſs a more abundant ſupply of valuable minerals than Fife. Coal, lime, iron-ſtone, and free-ſtone, are found in a vaſt variety of places, and of the beſt quality; to theſe may be added whin-ſtone and marl, and the Lomond hills are believed to contain both lead and copper.

Fife is divided into the four diſtricts of Cupar, St. Andrew's, Kirkcaldy, and Dunfermline. It contains no leſs than 13 royal boroughs; *viz.* Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, Burntiſland, Kinghorn, Kirkcaldy, Dyſart, Pittenweem, Kilrennie, Crail, Weſter Anſtruther, Eaſter Anſtruther, St. Andrew's, and Cupar.

Of theſe, for its ancient grandeur, *St. Andrew's* is entitled to the pre-eminence. It ſtands upon a flat coaſt, from which the country gradually and agreeably aſcends. It is ſituated on the eaſtern ſide of the county, overlooking the German Ocean, was once the capital of the Pictiſh kingdom, and afterward an epiſcopal and archiepiſcopal ſee, but it now preſents a ſpectacle ill according with its paſt fame and its antiquity. It retains as little of its former trade as of its magnificence. Its harbour, though guarded with piers, has ſuffered from the continual attacks of the ocean to whoſe whole force it is expoſed.

The univerſity will be noticed in another place. Of the antiquities, the tower and chapel of St. Regulus or St. Rule are ſtill remarkably entire. There are alſo ſome few remains of monaſtic eſtabliſhments, particularly the ruins of the chapel of the Obſervantines or Gray-friars, which ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the ſouth ſtreet, and ſeems, though ſmall, to have been a handſome building. The priory of Saint Andrew's is an extenſive ruin. The wall, by which it was ſurrounded, is ſtill pretty entire; and a part of the houſes belonging to the priors and ſub-priors ſtill remain. Adjoining to the priory are the ruins of the cathedral, which was long the metropolitan church of Scotland, begun by Biſhop Arnold in 1161, and completed by Biſhop Lamberton in 1318. The following meaſures ſhew it was a very large building, and the remains evince it was elegantly finiſhed. Its figure was that of a croſs, its length from eaſt to weſt meaſured three hundred and ſeventy feet, the tranſept three hundred and twenty-two. Of this magnificent building nothing remains above ground but fragments of the eaſt and weſt ends; the ſouth wall of the choir meaſuring in length about one hundred and eighty feet,

and

and thirty in height. There is alſo a wall at right angles to the choir, poſſibly part of the ſouth tranſept. The weſt end conſiſts of a large gate with a jointed arch called the golden gate, probably from its having been once gilt; over it are a ſeries of arches, above which was a large window. On each ſide of the gate was a polygonal tower, crowned with a conical top. That on the north ſide is fallen down. The eaſt end has alſo two turrets crowned with pointed tops, between which were three windows, and over it a large one, nearly occupying the whole interval between the turrets. In the ſouth wall is a range of windows with pointed arches, but in part ſuppoſed to have been the ſouth tranſept. The windows are circular, and at the bottom there runs a range of interlaced ſemicircular arches. Excepting theſe fragments, this cathedral was in June 1559 demoliſhed by a mob excited by the eloquence of the reformer John Knox. The caſtle of St. Andrew's, commonly called Cardinal Beaton's, ſtands on the ſea-ſide, on a ridge of rocks north of the town, ſaid to have been acceſſible only by a narrow paſſage. On the eaſt and north, the ruins of the walls and the perpendicular rock below are a great height above the ſea, which at high water beats againſt them. The ſouth wall has fallen to the water's edge. Large fragments of the ſouth-eaſt wall have tumbled down inwards, and formed a ſteep bank, covered with graſs and weeds, not eaſily paſſable. The great ſquare tower is ſtill ſufficiently entire to give ſome idea of the elegance of the building. This caſtle was built in 1155 by Roger, biſhop of this ſee, and greatly improved by the archbiſhop Cardinal Beaton.

Cupar is the county town of Fife, where the ſheriff holds his courts. It boaſts of great antiquity. The thanes of Fife, in the earlieſt times, held their courts of juſtice here. The town, in ancient days, depended upon the earls of Fife. The caſtle of Cupar was the chief reſidence of that powerful family for many ages. What was called the caſtle is now totally demoliſhed, but the caſtle-hill is well known. After being long the reſidence of the earls of Fife, it became at laſt a national fortreſs. In early times it appears to have been uſed as a theatre. The Mount, formerly the eſtate of Sir David Lindſay, is in the vicinity of Cupar. What is called the Garliebank, being a piece of high ground ſouth of Cupar, is remarkable for being the ſpot where a treaty was ſigned, on the 13th of June 1599, betwixt the Duke of Chatelherault and M. D'Oyſel, commanding the army of the Queen Regent, and on the other part by the Earl of Argyle and Lord James, prior of Saint Andrew's, leading the forces of the congregation, that is, of the party who had taken arms in oppoſition to the

Roman Catholic faith, which the government imprudently attempted to ſupport after it had become odious to a majority of the people.

The borough of *Crail* was formerly written Carle, Caryle, and Caraille. It ſtands upon a ſmall bending of the ſhore, and conſiſts of two parallel ſtreets, extending eaſt and weſt along the ſhore, which is ſteep and high. A priory once exiſted at Crail; but it appears to have been ſuppreſſed before the Reformation. The walls are ſtill ſtanding below the eaſt end of the town cloſe to the ſea. In 1517, the church of Crail was made collegiate. It is ſtill ſtanding, and uſed as the pariſh church. Beſides the high altar, it contained eight others dedicated to different ſaints. It was in this church that John Knox, by a vehement ſermon having inflamed his hearers againſt the monuments of idolatry, led them to aſſail the ſuperb cathedral of St. Andrew's.

Weſtward from Crail, are the royal boroughs called *Kilrennie*, and *Eaſter* and *Weſter Anſtruther*. They contain nothing remarkable, and are in truth only ſmall villages or rather fiſhing towns.

Weſtward from Anſtruther is *Pittenweem*, another royal borough. A great cave or weem, from which the borough derives its name, is ſituated half way between the beach and the ruins of an ancient priory. It conſiſts of two capacious apartments. At the termination of the inner one is a well of excellent water. At the junction of the two apartments is a ſtair leading to a ſubterraneous paſſage, which conducted to the ground under the abbey; but the paſſage has been deſtroyed by the earth falling in. Another ſtair ſtill remains, leading from the refectory of the abbey to the further extremity of the ſubterraneous paſſage. This paſſage was about fifty yards in length. The abbey or priory itſelf belonged to the canons regular of St. Auguſtine, and was dedicated to the Virgin Mary. A conſiderable remnant of it is ſtill to be ſeen.

Dyſart was erected into a borough in the beginning of the 16th century, but its original charter is loſt. It conſiſts of one principal ſtreet running along the ſhore from eaſt to weſt, with ſome lanes. There was a priory of Black-friars anciently at Dyſart. Their chapel, which had been long ruinous, was at length converted into a ſmith's forge.

Kirkcaldy ſtands on the ſea-ſhore on the bay of that name. It has to the ſouth an uncommonly fine ſoft beach, forming the ſhore of the bay. It has very extenſive ſuburbs without the royalty, which together with itſelf form a large and populous town. The ſuburb on the weſt is called the Link Town,

Town, from its having been built on links or downs along the coaſt. It is in the pariſh of Abbots-hall. To the eaſtward is the village of Path-head, which ſtands on elevated ground at the eaſtern termination of the bay of Kirkcaldy. It is only divided from the royalty by a ſmall ſtream, over which is a bridge; and by a ſteep aſcent, inconvenient for being uſed as building ground. It is again ſubdivided into Path-head proper, or Dunnikier, ſituated on the eſtate of Oſwald of Dunnikier; and Sinclair-town of more modern date on the eſtate of Sinclair. Path-head is in the pariſh of Dyſart. In conſequence of the narrowneſs, irregularity, and great length of the principal ſtreet of Kirkcaldy, it is extremely tedious and even teazing, for a ſtranger to paſs through it. A kind of new town has of late been opened toward the north, the buildings of which are better ſuited to the preſent proſperous ſtate of the inhabitants. The only public buildings worthy of notice are the town-houſe and the church. Since the union of the two kingdoms, this borough joins with the neighbouring boroughs of Dyſart, Kinghorn, and Burntiſland, in ſending a repreſentative to the Britiſh parliament. The manufactures carried on here are chiefly thoſe of coarſe linen, bed ticks, chequered and ſtriped linens, with a mixture of cotton in ſome of them, and low priced ſorts of plain linen. The ſpinning of cotton has alſo been introduced; but the greater number of common people are employed in the different operations of heckling, ſpinning, dyeing, bleaching, warping, winding, and weaving. A branch of the Bank of Scotland is eſtabliſhed here ſince the year 1785. Kirkcaldy has produced two men who attained to very deſerved diſtinction in their reſpective ages, Michael Scott the ſuppoſed wizard, the Friar Bacon of Scotland, and Dr. Adam Smith, ſo well known in modern literature for his "Theory of Moral Sentiments," and his "Inquiry into the Nature and Cauſes of the Wealth of Nations."

The royal borough of *Dunfermline*, at the diſtance of 16 miles from Edinburgh, ſtands three miles from the ſea, and about 190 feet above its level. The city and caſtle of Edinburgh are ſeen from it, together with Arthur's Seat; and it commands a fine view of the fertile banks of the Forth, together with the Forth itſelf, ſometimes concealed by an elevated ſhore, and here and there breaking out in openings. Dunfermline has long been remarkable for the manufacture of diaper or table linen. It has eight fairs annually, and a weekly market on Friday. The town is very ancient, and contains a conſiderable number of charitable eſtabliſhments, though none of great extent. Dunfermline Abbey was a Be-

nedictine monaſtery, begun by King Malcolm the Third or Canmore, and finiſhed by Alexander the Firſt, ſurnamed the Fierce. Its remains are extenſive, and ſhew it to have been an elegant building. The fratery with its beautiful window is extremely ſtriking. The abbot's houſe is adjacent. Part of the church is now uſed for parochial ſervice. Several of the Scottiſh kings were buried here; and indeed, next after the celebrated Iona or Icolmkill in the Hebrides, the church of Dunfermline was the moſt common cemetry of the kings of Scotland. The remains of Robert Bruce, the avenger of his country's independence, lie here without an inſcription or memorial to diſtinguiſh them.

The County of Fife alſo comprehends 59 villages. Of which Ely, Falkland, Newburgh, and Earl's Ferry, are royal boroughs: but they have no ſhare in the election of members of parliament for Scotland; for this reaſon, that previous to the union, when attendance upon parliament was conſidered as a burdenſome office, the inhabitants by petitions obtained an exemption from the duty of ſending them.

Torryburn, toward the ſouth-weſtern extremity of the county, has a harbour, from which large quantities of coal are exported. There are alſo paſſage boats at Crombie-point, which run acroſs the Frith to Borrowſtounneſs. The harbour of Charleſtown is chiefly employed for the exportation of lime; and that of Limekilns, in the neighbourhood, for the exportation of coal, and the importation of wood, iron, flax, &c. North Queensferry, ſituated upon a point ſtretching far into the Frith, is chiefly uſed, as its name implies, for paſſengers, and is ſituated upon the great road from Perth to Edinburgh. The Frith at this place is very narrow; hence this paſſage is preferred to the broader paſſages at Aberdour, Burntiſland, Kinghorn, Kirkcaldy, and Dyſart, particularly in ſtormy weather. The boats being flat-bottomed, draw little water; ſo that an eaſy conveyance can be had at almoſt all times of the tide, except at low or neap tides, or when contrary winds prevail. Some peculiarities concerning this port and its harbour deſerve notice. It is called by Buchanan *Margaritæ Portus*, from the popular princeſs Queen Margaret, already mentioned, who had frequently uſed this paſſage in travelling to Edinburgh, and is ſuppoſed to have patronized the inhabitants. It was afterwards ſubject, during ſome centuries, to the Abbot of Dunfermline, who exerciſed over it juriſdiction in their courts of admiralty and regality, in which they have been ſucceeded by the juſtices of peace of the two neighbouring counties. It was afterward the property of the commendator of Dunfermline, who ſold his rights in ſhares to a number of private

private individuals; and these shares at present belong to the Earl of Roseberry, Preston of Valleyfield, Dundas of Dundas, and other gentlemen in the neighbourhood. One of the shares belongs to a boatman at the passage. These purchasers from the monastery have always continued to draw a fourth share of the passage-money and to supply boats. They usually grant an annual lease of their fourth share to one or more of the ordinary boatmen, and their rent is annually about 300*l*. The inhabitants of North Queensferry have uniformly consisted, from time immemorial, of operative boatmen without any intermixture of strangers, excepting that of late a blacksmith was brought thither by the innkeeper, who is also a boatman. They hold their houses in feu under the Marquis of Tweeddale, as the successor of the Abbot of Dunfermline. The inhabitants of this village have always held, from generation to generation, the passage or ferry as a sort of property or inheritance. On the evening of every Saturday, the earnings of the week are collected into a mass: one fortieth part of the whole is deducted for the public, and called *ferry silver*; one fourth is set apart for the proprietors of the passage; and the remainder is divided into shares, called *deals*, according to the number of persons entitled to a portion of it. One full deal is allotted to every man of mature age who has laboured during that week as a boatman, whether he has acted as master or mariner, or in a great boat or a yawl. Next the aged boatmen who have become unfit for labour, receive half a deal, or half the sum allotted to an acting boatman. Boys employed in the boats receive shares proportioned to their age from one shilling and sixpence up to a full deal or share. A small sum is also set apart for a schoolmaster, and for the widows of deceased boatmen. Nobody for ages became a boatman or sailor on this ferry unless by succession. That right was always understood by these people to be limited to the first generation. About 40 men act in the boats, and receive the full deal as sailors of mature age. The whole community, including these and the old men and boys, and the women of every age, amounts to about 200 individuals. It is kept down to this number by emigration; because a man of mature age usually receives no more, and sometimes less for acting as a boatmen here than he could obtain by acting as a seaman in the public service, or in that of a merchant; and he is moreover excluded from all chance of rising in the world, a circumstance which of itself is sufficient to keep the number stationary. The community has accordingly existed for ages destitute of riches; but none of its members have been reduced to absolute poverty, or become a burthen upon the public;

public; becauſe by the fundamental laws of this ſociety, the men of mature age have always ſyſtematically laboured for the paſt and the future generation, and have divided with them the bread which they earned. This ferry is the moſt frequented in Scotland, and a project has been lately ſet on foot to ſuperſede the uſe of it by forming a tunnel under the Frith, a ſcheme by no means to be deemed impracticable.

In the pariſh of Kilconquhar is *Earl's Ferry*, one of the royal boroughs already mentioned, which have no ſhare in the Scottiſh repreſentation. To the weſtward of it is Kincraig rock, remarkable for its caverns. One of them, called Macduff's cave, penetrates into the rock about 200 feet. It is ſuppoſed to be at leaſt 160 feet in height, forming a ſtupendous natural arch. Some remains of a wall are to be ſeen in it; and it is ſaid to have been uſed as a place of retreat in times of danger. Here, according to tradition, Macduff Earl of Fife, who has been immortalized by the pen of Shakeſpeare, at firſt concealed himſelf after Macbeth's uſurpation. Being unſafe here, the inhabitants of Earl's Ferry conveyed him over to North Berwick; and upon the reſtoration he obtained the village to be erected into a royal borough, to be called Earl's Ferry, in memory of the ſervice thus performed. Upon the authority of the ſame tradition, it is ſaid that Macduff likewiſe obtained the following privilege from King Malcolm, that upon the application of any criminal, the inhabitants ſhould have a right to convey him over the Frith in one of their own veſſels; and that if they did ſo, no other veſſel ſhould be allowed to put to ſea in purſuit, till the criminal ſhould be half way acroſs.

There are many architectural antiquities and remains of encampments in this county; among them are *Inchcolm Abbey*, in Inchcolm or the Iſle of Columba; *Roſyth Caſtle*; *Loch Orr Caſtle*; the *Caſtle of Eaſtern Wemyſs*, commonly called Macduff's; *Balgonie Caſtle*; *Bethune's Tower*; the *Tower of Clatto*; *Balgonie Abbey*; the *Abbey of Lindores*; *Macduff's Croſs*, and many others.

In the pariſh of Largo, in the middle of a plain, are three remarkable ſtones ſtanding upright in the ground. They are rude blocks, without inſcription, or any veſtige of a character upon them. They are called by the common people the *three Lairds of Lundin*, or *Lundie*. It has been ſuppoſed that they are the grave-ſtones of Daniſh chiefs who fell in battle. In the ſame village, a great grand nephew of Alexander Selkirk, poſſeſſed his cheſt and muſket, and a cup which he formed and uſed in his deſart iſland. De Foe converted the hiſtory of Alexander Selkirk into the entertaining and inſtructive

tive ſtory of Robinſon Cruſoe. Selkirk was born in Largo in 1676, and went to ſea in his youth. In 1703 being ſailing maſter of the ſhip Cinque Ports, Captain Stradling, bound for the South Seas, he was put on ſhore on the iſland of Juan Fernandez in conſequence of a quarrel with the captain. In that ſolitude he remained four years and four months, from which he was at laſt relieved and brought to England by Captain Woods Rogers. He had with him in the iſland his clothes and bedding, with a fire-lock, ſome powder, bullets and tobacco, a hatchet, knife, bottle, his mathematical inſtruments and Bible. He built two huts of pimento trees, and covered them with long graſs, and in a ſhort time lined them with ſkins of goats, which he killed with his muſket ſo long as his powder laſted (which at firſt was but a pound). When that was ſpent, he caught them by ſpeed of foot. Having learned to produce fire by rubbing two pieces of wood together, he dreſſed his victuals in one of his huts, and ſlept in the other, which was at ſome diſtance from his kitchen. A multitude of rats often diſturbed his repoſe by gnawing his feet and other parts of his body, which induced him to feed a number of cats for his protection. In a ſhort time theſe became ſo tame that they would lie about him in hundreds, and ſoon delivered him from the rats, his enemies. Upon his return he declared to his friends, that nothing gave him ſo much uneaſineſs as the thought, that when he died his body would be devoured by theſe very cats he had with ſo much care tamed and fed. To diveſt his mind from ſuch melancholy thoughts, he would ſometimes dance and ſing among his kids and goats, at other times retire to his devotion. His clothes and ſhoes were ſoon worn by running through the woods. In the want of ſhoes he found little inconvenience, as the ſoles of his feet became ſo hard that he could run every where without difficulty. As for clothes, he made for himſelf a coat and cap of goat ſkins, ſewed with little thongs of the ſame, cut into proper form with his knife. His only needle was a nail. When his knife was worn to the back, he made others, as well as he could, of ſome iron hoops that had been left on ſhore, by beating them and grinding them on ſtones. By his long ſecluſion from intercourſe with men, he had ſo far forgot the uſe of ſpeech, that the people on board Captain Roger's ſhip could ſcarcely underſtand him, for he ſeemed to ſpeak his words by halves. He died in 1723, mate of His Majeſty's ſhip Weymouth, and bequeathed his property, which was conſiderable, to a female friend near Plymouth, whom he had married. He had no manuſcripts, the

ſtory

ſtory therefore of his having been defrauded of them by De Foe is untrue.

To the county of Fife belongs the *Iſland of May*. It is ſituated in the mouth of the Firth of Forth, about ſix miles diſtant from Weſter Anſtruther, from which it lies in a ſouth-eaſt direction. This iſland in former times was tenanted by 14 or 15 families. Its inhabitants however are now reduced to a ſingle family, or at leaſt to thoſe employed in attending a lighthouſe which was built in the reign of Charles the Firſt, upon a tower of 45 feet in height. The architect who erected it periſhed in a ſtorm when returning home after it was finiſhed, and ſome old women were burned as witches for having raiſed the tempeſt. In the night of the 23d of January 1791, a melancholy accident occurred at this light-houſe. A large heap of aſhes which had long been accumulating round the foot of the tower burſt into a flame. The perſons attending the light-houſe conſiſted of the keeper, his wife, and five children, and two men who acted as aſſiſtants; they all lodged in the lower part of the tower. The wind carried the ſmoke of the burning cinders and aſhes into the windows of the tower, from which it had no outlet, and the keeper and his family were ſuffocated, excepting an infant that was taken alive from the breaſt of the dead mother. The two aſſiſtants were for ſome time ſenſeleſs, but they recovered.

The population of the county ſtands thus:

	Houſes.	Inhabitants.
The county —	17,831 —	93,743
St. Andrew's —	781 —	4,200
Cupar —	796 —	4,463
Kirkcaldy —	362 —	3,248
Dunfermline —	584 —	9,980
Falkland —	490 —	2,211
Newburgh —	267 —	1,936
Anſtruther, Eaſter	195 —	969
Anſtruther, Weſter	69 —	296
Craile —	344 —	1,652
Ely —	135 —	730
Pittenweem —	190 —	1,072
Burntiſland —	271 —	1,530
Dyſart —	846 —	5,385
Kennoway —	338 —	1,466
Kinghorn —	316 —	2,308
Wemyſs —	576 —	3,264
Aberdour —	226 —	1,060
Inverkeithing —	350 —	2,228

Forfar or Angus-shire.

This county is bounded on the north-eaſt by the Northeſk river, which ſeparates it from Kincardineſhire; from the mouth of that river, proceeding ſouth and weſt to the Frith of Tay, the German Ocean forms its boundary; on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt the Tay, from Barry ſands to the quarry of Kingoody, is its boundary on the ſouth; then it extends, in an irregular line, about forty miles, as far as the ſource of Iſla, bordering with Perthſhire on the weſt; and on the north it is ſeparated from Aberdeenſhire, for the ſpace of twenty-ſix miles, by the Grampian mountains, which here are named the *Binchinnans*. The extent of the whole, from the eaſtern coaſt to the Grampians, is about forty-eight miles; and from Mount Petie, on the borders of Perthſhire, to the mouth of the Northeſk river, about forty-two. Its average length however, from north to ſouth, is thirty-two miles, and its average breadth, from weſt to eaſt, twenty-nine miles. It contains 928 ſquare miles, or 467,415 Scottiſh, equal to 593,920 Engliſh acres.

The north-weſtern half is mountainous, conſiſting of a ſection of the Grampians, and generally inhabited by Highlanders; the ſouth-eaſtern is more level, and inhabited by Lowlanders. The mountains are covered with heath or paſture, and ſhaded with foreſts, the Lowlands tolerably well cultivated and not infertile. The coaſt is abrupt and rocky, and broken into numerous natural caverns. It ſupports great numbers of black cattle and ſheep, produces leſs wheat than oats and bier, and yields good crops of potatoes. The eaſtern parts, from their maritime ſituation, are ſubject to thick fogs, which prove injurious to the artificial plantations.

The principal rivers are the *North Eſk* and *South Eſk*, *Iſla*, *Dighty*, and *Lunan*. The chief lakes are thoſe of *Forfar*, *Reſtennet*, *Reſcoby*, and *Balgueres*.

The minerals are lime, freeſtone, marl, a little lead, and a vein of ſilver too inconſiderable to pay for working.

This county contains five royal boroughs; *viz.* Dundee, Arbroath, Montroſe, Brechin, and Forfar. Of theſe *Dundee* is the moſt important. It ſtands on the north bank of the river Tay, about twelve miles from its mouth, is large and well built, conſiſting of ſeveral ſtreets, diverging in every direction from the market-place or high-ſtreet, which is a ſpacious ſquare 360 feet long by 100 feet broad. The town is well ſupplied with water, and the harbour is advantageouſly ſituated for trade, admitting eaſily trading veſſels of the greateſt burden.

burden. The principal and ſtaple manufacture is linen of various kinds. Several cotton works have been attempted without ſucceſs. The Dundee coloured threads have been long in high repute. Dundee with Perth, Forfar, St. Andrew's, and Cupar in Fife, ſends a member to parliament. On an eminence, near the ſtreet called the Cowgate, the incorporated trades in conjunction with the kirk-ſeſſion, have built St. Andrew's church, with a fine ſpire 139 feet high, exhibiting one of the pureſt ſpecimens of modern architecture. There is a neat entry to the church by a broad gravel walk, with graſsplots and ſhrubberies laid out in a moſt excellent ſtyle. This town was the birth place of Hector Boece or Boethius, who was principal of King's college in Aberdeen. Of him Dr. Samuel Johnſon remarks, that "he may be juſtly reverenced as one of the revivers of elegant learning."

Aberbrothock or *Abroath*, ſituated at the eſtuary of a ſtream called the Brothock, is a royal borough of great but unknown antiquity. The town ſtands on a ſmall plain, ſurrounded on the weſt, north, and eaſt ſides by eminences in the form of an amphitheatre, commanding an extenſive proſpect of the Friths of Tay and Forth, and the elevated parts of Fifeſhire and Lothian. The body of the town conſiſts of one ſtreet nearly half a mile in length, running north and ſouth from the ſea, and another on the weſt ſide of ſmaller extent. The harbour is ſmall, but commodious, and can be taken by veſſels in a ſtorm, when they cannot enter any of the neighbouring ports. It is entirely artificial, being well ſheltered from the ſea by a long pier; and during ſtorms the inner harbour is ſo ſecured by wooden gates, that the veſſels lie in the ſmootheſt water. The moſt intereſting object here conſiſts of the venerable ruins of the abbey, which convey a high idea of its ancient magnificence. It was built with a red ſtone found in the neighbourhood, which has not proved ſo durable as that found on the Tweed. Part of the abbot's houſe is ſtill ſtanding and inhabited; ſome of the ancient floors are remaining, and ſeveral handſome carvings in oak. This abbey was founded by William the Lion, and dedicated to Thomas à Becket.

Montroſe ſtands on a ſort of peninſula formed by the river South Eſk and the German Ocean. The town is neatly built, conſiſting of a fine ſpacious main ſtreet with bye lanes, and is juſtly accounted one of the firſt provincial towns of its ſize in Scotland. It is a very gay place, diſtinguiſhed more by the reſidence of perſons of opulence and faſhion than of commerce and induſtry. It has its theatre, monthly aſſemblies, and other places of amuſement; and annual races which are well attended. One of the oldeſt houſes in the town, now converted

into a hotel, is noted for being that in which the celebrated Marquis of Montroſe was born, and in which the Pretender ſlept on the 13th of February 1716, the night before he eſcaped to France.

Brechin alſo ſtands upon the South Eſk, about eight miles above Montroſe. The town conſiſts of a handſome ſtreet with bye lanes, and is well ſupplied with water by means of leaden pipes. The manufacture of linen and ſail-cloth is carried on to a conſiderable extent. The principal ornament of the vicinity is Brechin caſtle, a modern edifice, which is much admired on account of its romantic ſituation. The cathedral church is an ancient and handſome Gothic pile. It is in length 160 feet, in breadth 61. The eaſtern part is ruinous; the weſtern part now ſerves for the pariſh church.

Forfar, on account of its ſituation, as being pretty central, is the place where the ſheriff holds his courts, and where public meetings are convened. Hence it is conſidered as the capital of the county, and gives its name to the whole. It ſtands low with reſpect to the circumjacent ground on every ſide excepting the weſt, but it is high in compariſon to the general level of the county. The ſtreets are irregular, but many of the houſes are neat and well built. The church is elegant and commodious, ſituated nearly in the centre of the town. A conſiderable manufacture of Oſnaburghs and coarſe linens is carried on in Forfar, and the making of coarſe ſhoes, or brogues as they are called, employs a conſiderable number of hands.

In this county are 21,022 houſes, and 99,127 ſouls.

The chief towns are as follow:

Dundee 6,952 houſes and 26,084 perſons; Aberbrothock 625 dwellings and 4,943 inhabitants; Montroſe, houſes 1,079, people 7,974; Brechin 772 houſes and 5,466 ſouls; and Forfar 739 dwellings with 5,165 people. Kirriemuir, which is a conſiderable borough of a barony, contains 949 houſes, and has 4,421 people; there is alſo a town called St. Vigearus, which for 4,243 inhabitants has 797 houſes.

Haddingtonshire or East Lothian.

This county derived its appellation from the ſhire town, which name is ſaid to be of Saxon origin, but of difficult etymology. The area of this county ſeems to have been called *Bernicia*, from the abdication of the Romans till 1020, when the whole diſtrict was ceded by the Northumbrian earl to the Scottiſh king. From that epoch, the ample country lying along

along the ſea and the Forth, from the Tweed to the Avon, was denominated by the Saxon ſettlers, from their native language, Lothian, with an alluſion to its peculiar juriſdiction on a litigious frontier. Lothian was ſtill known as a country diſtinct from Scotland in the reign of David I. During that of his grandſon William the Lion, the Lamermoor range became the ſouthern boundary of Lothian. Soon after, both in popular tradition and in public proceedings, the area of this ſhire was called Eaſt Lothian, in order to diſtinguiſh it from Edinburghſhire or Mid Lothian, and from Linlithgowſhire or Weſt Lothian.

The weſtern declivity of the Lamermoor equally forms in this ſhire as the eaſtern does in Berwickſhire, a conſiderable diſtrict, which affects its atmoſphere and produces many of its ſtreamlets. At the weſt edge of this vaſt moor, which has always been of importance for its paſturages, ſtands Lamer-Law, which probably gave a pleonaſtic name to the whole ridge. From Lamermoor, the face of the whole country has a general inclination to the northward. The ſurface of this ſhire is broken into many inequalities by its ſudden aſcents and frequent declivities. Yet the county cannot be ſaid to be mountainous, and its hills do not riſe to great elevations, though Spartleton hill, ſaid to be one of the higheſt in the range of Lamermoor, riſes 1615 feet above the level of the ſea. Yet, though moſt of the weſtern declivity of this unſightly ridge is occupied by alternations of moor and moſs, there is much of a better quality in the intervals of the hills, where the plough performs its uſual operations, and the ſower's hand produces a regular rotation of crops.

The greateſt part of the ſhire lies upon a bed of granite. The whole county is full of pit coal: this uſeful mineral abounds in the pariſhes of Tranent, Ormiſton, Gladſmuir, in Preſtonpans, and in Invereſk; here was it dug as early as the beginning of the thirteenth century, if not earlier. Limeſtone abounds in every part of this ſhire, and it would be difficult perhaps to find any place within it which exceeds ſix miles from ſome limeſtone rock. It has marl throughout in equal abundance. At the entrance into the harbour of Dunbar, which is very narrow, between two rocks, is a production of nature which reſembles the Giant's Cauſeway in Ireland. On the weſt ſide of the harbour is a promontory ſtretching out about a hundred yards to the north and about twenty yards wide, having the ſea on each ſide of it on the flow of the tide. This rocky head is a natural curioſity of an uncommon kind, being compoſed of a red ſtone which is not limeſtone but rather a very hard freeſtone reſembling, on both ſides, the Giant's Cauſeway. This peninſular

peninſular rock is called, by the people of Dunbar, the iſle. Freeſtone ſeems to abound in every part of this ſhire; near Barra, and in Pencaithland and Tranent, quarries of excellent quality are wrought for daily uſe. Iron ore abounds in Humbie and Keith, and in Oldhamſtocks; and there is an iron-work at Fawſide in Tranent. In this ſhire are ſeveral mineral ſprings, and about a mile from the ſhore of Haddington, facing the village of Caſtleton, lies the Baſs, a rock of great height; on the ſouth ſide, the top appears of a conical ſhape, but the other overhangs the unfathomable ſea in a moſt tremendous manner. This naturally is the annual reſort of water-fowl, which find the Baſs a commodious breeding place: among theſe the moſt numerous are the gannets, or Solan geeſe, whoſe young are ſold for the benefit of the proprietor of the rock. The next in number are the kittiewakes, a ſpecies of gull, which have derived their ſingular name from their conſtant cry. Here, alſo, Ray ſaw the ſcout, the ſcart, and a bird called the turtle-dove, whole footed and the feet red. This perpendicular rock is celebrated in the Polemomiddinia of Drummond, as "the *ſolangooſifera* Baſſa."

Haddingtonſhire cannot boaſt of being well watered. It ſeems to have no lakes, either for ornament or uſe. The *White-Ader*, which circulates through Berwickſhire with ſo much convenience and beauty, riſes in Haddington. The *Tyne*, which ſprings from the moor of Middleton, in Edinburghſhire, "flows tortoiſe like" through this county. From the pariſhes of Crighton and Cranſton it enters this ſhire, and holding its devious courſe from weſt to eaſt, waſhes the county town and falls into the Firth at Tyningham, after receiving in its progreſs *Salton water*, *Coalſtoun waters*, and ſeveral rills. The Tyne, however, is ſubject to floods, and has often damaged the ſhire town on its banks by its torrent. There are not any other ſtreams in this ſhire which merit the appellation of brooks, but however penurious nature may have been in ſupplying this ſhire with lakes and riverets, ſhe has abundantly made amends by ſurrounding the whole northern ſhore by the ſea and Forth.

The principal places are Haddington, Dunbar, and North-Berwick.

Haddington, the ſhire town, lies on the Tyne, is well built and paved, agreeably ſituated, and ſurrounded by numerous ſeats and manſions. It has 711 houſes and 4,049 inhabitants.

Dunbar conſiſts principally of one ſtreet, broad and handſome. The harbour is ſmall but ſafe, and it takes ſome ſhare in the Greenland fiſhery. The caſtle of Dunbar has often

furniſhed a theatre for warlike exploits in earlier times. The ruins of this fortreſs, which is ſeated on a rock above the ſea, is the Dun-bar, or ſtrength upon the ſummit, of the ancient people. As the land in this vicinity was given by Malcolm Canmore to Coſpatrick, the expatriated Earl of Northumberland, we may eaſily ſuppoſe that he here ſtrengthened a caſtle, which was completed by his warlike and opulent ſucceſſors, the earls of Dunbar and March. The ſieges which it ſucceſſively ſuſtained, by the moſt warlike princes, are ſatisfactory proofs of its ſtrength from its natural poſition and artificial works. The foul deeds and flight of James, Earl Bothwell, induced the parliament of December 1567 to direct its demolition. The neighbouring town derived its exiſtence and its name from the caſtlelated cliff. The inhabitants of Dunbar 3,951; they have 717 houſes.

North Berwick is a ſmall town pleaſantly built on a hill and ſhaded with trees. It has a ſmall harbour protected by a pier, and enjoys a ſhare in the ſalt and coaſting trade. It is remarkable for its malt liquor. The houſes are 270; the inhabitants 1,583.

Near Berwick is *Preſtonpans*, memorable for the defeat of the royal troops, under Sir John Cope, by the young Pretender. In the ſame neighbourhood are Carberry-hill and Pinbie, two places ſtill more remarkable in the earlier period of our military hiſtory.

This county contains a population of 29,986; the number of inhabited houſes is 6,256.

Tranent, which is a conſiderable village, has 651 dwellings, and 3,046 people.

Inverness.

This is the moſt extenſive ſhire in Scotland, ſtretching from the eaſtern to the weſtern ſea, eighty miles in length, and in the wideſt part nearly the ſame in breadth. Its ſubdiviſions are Inverneſs Proper, compriſing two-thirds of the ſhire to the north, and Lochaber and Badenoch the remaining third on the ſouth. To this ſhire alſo belong ſeveral of the weſtern iſlands. This extenſive region, which forms the moſt wild and rugged portion of the highlands, preſents only the appearance of a vaſt ſurface of mountains; ſome covered with heath and verdure, or feathered with groves, woods, and foreſts; ſome dark, rugged, and deſolate, interſected by extenſive lochs or wild and romantic ravines, glens, and valleys, watered by innumerable Alpine ſtreams. From this deſcription, however, muſt

muſt be excepted the Airds, a ſmall diſtrict on the north, between the Neſs and the Beauley, which is cultivated, incloſed, and produces oats and bier, the grain adapted to this northern ſoil.

A ſingular feature of this county is the extenſive glen or valley called Glen-more-na-h'Alabin, or the great glen of Albion. This glen, which interſects the county from ſea to ſea, is ſeventy miles long, and in ſome places ſcarcely a quarter of a mile wide, bounded on each ſide by a range of ſteep and rugged mountains, and watered, or rather filled, for nearly two-thirds of its length by lochs *Neſs*, *Lochy*, and *Eil*. The firſt of theſe is above twenty miles long and one hundred and forty fathoms deep; the ſecond, eight miles in length. The facilities afforded by this valley have given riſe to the Caledonian canal, which will be noticed hereafter. Loch Neſs never freezes, while another loch called *Loch Wain* is always frozen. Connected with, or originating from, theſe lochs, are the rivers *Neſs*, *Spey*, *Garne*, *Morriſton*, *Eimerie*, and *Coiltie*. There is alſo the *Beaulie*, compoſed of the three leſſer ſtreams, *Farrur*, *Camch*, and *Glaſs*. There are ſeveral other lochs.

The county contains limeſtone, porphyry, and granite, and ſome lead and ſilver have been diſcovered. The mountains in many parts are clothed with natural foreſts of the fineſt pine; but its riches are its flocks and herds of cattle, numbers of which are annually ſent into the ſouthern parts of the kingdom. Its heaths and wilds abound with deer and every ſpecies of game, and its lochs and inlets with fiſh.

In Glen-roy, a valley near Fort Auguſtus, are ſeveral terraces on roads running on both ſides along the declivity of the oppoſite mountains, thirty feet wide and nearly nine miles in length. This extenſive work, apparently without any uſe, has long perplexed the antiquaries, but the better opinion ſeems to be that it is a production of nature not of art. In other parts of the ſhire are various old buildings and antiquities, but the great attractions are the wonderful features of nature, in which are comprized the *falls of Foyers* and the mountain called *Ben-nevis*, 4,370 feet in height.

So ſecluded and impervious a diſtrict cannot be ſuppoſed to contain any large communities. The principal and almoſt the only extenſive place is *Inverneſs*, a neat town, pleaſantly ſituated on the Neſs. Being a military ſtation, and the great centre of almoſt all the inland commerce in the north of Scotland, it is flouriſhing, cheerful, and polite. Its fine harbour admits veſſels of two hundred tons at high tides; and veſſels of five hundred tons can approach within a mile at the loweſt

ebb. Some branches of the linen, woollen, cotton, and hemp manufacture are carried on in the town and its neighbourhood.

Inverneſsſhire, according to the returns, contains 74,292 ſouls. The number of houſes is 14,516.

Inverneſs town with its dependencies, forming one pariſh, has 1,431 houſes, and 8,732 inhabitants.

KINCARDINESHIRE,

CALLED alſo the ſhire of Merns, is in length about thirty, and in breadth twenty miles; and contains 191,576 Scottiſh, or 243,444 Engliſh acres. It is bounded on the eaſt by the German Ocean, on the north by Aberdeenſhire, and on the ſouth and weſt by the county of Angus.

The weſtern ſide of this county, which is a continuation of the Grampians, is hilly and covered with heaths and paſture, though the hollows are cultivated; the eaſtern parts are more generally level, and fertile in every ſpecies of corn. Over the whole country are ſcattered numerous plantations of firs and other trees raiſed in recent times, but thoſe in expoſed ſituations on the eaſtern ſide, like all the diſtricts on this coaſt, are ſubject to the canker and moſs. The ſhire has been much benefited by the ſpirit of agricultural improvement which has animated the country gentlemen; and the cottages of the peaſantry ſhew far more neatneſs and attention to comfort than is uſual in the diſtant parts of Scotland.

The principal waters connected with this county are the *North Eſk* and the *Dee*. The *Dye*, the *Cowie*, the *Carron*, the *Bervie*, and the *Luther*, are ſtreams of inferior note.

The minerals are limeſtone, ſome valuable pebbles, and fine jaſper; the coaſt has large rocks of what is called plum-pudding-ſtone, and in the eaſtern parts of the county are quarries of granite.

Here are few places worth particular attention.

Inverbervie, or *Bervie*, is a royal borough; it has a harbour and a bridge; it was a place of ſome note, but now the whole pariſh in which it ſtands has only 210 houſes, and 1,068 ſouls.

Kincardine, once the county town, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable village.

Stonehive, or *Stonehaven*, the head burgh of the ſhire, is a ſmall town built at the foot of the cliff on the ſhore of a little bay. It has a manufacture of ſail-cloths and oſnaburghs, and knit ſtockings. Its harbour is covered with a pier, but is only capable of receiving ſmall veſſels even at high water.

Laurencekirk,

Laurencekirk, lately a petty hamlet, has riſen into a pretty town, with a right to elect magiſtrates, a yearly fair and weekly market, by the patronage of its proprietor Lord Gardenſtone. He has eſtabliſhed manufactories of linen and cambrics, and removed the oppreſſive feudal privileges, which tended to ſhackle agriculture.

Among the antiquities of this country is a cairn or rude monument of ſtone of uncommon ſize, near a village called Fetter Cairn. Near Stonehaven are the romantic ruins of Dunnotter Caſtle, the ſeat of the Keiths, Earl Marſhals of Scotland.

Urie, near Stonehaven, was the birth place of the celebrated Barclay the apologiſt of the quakers; and the pariſh of Arbuthnot gave birth to the witty phyſician of that name, the friend and fellow-labourer of Pope and Swift.

Kincardineſhire contains 26,349 ſouls. The number of houſes is 5,990.

KINROSS.

THIS ſmall ſhire is almoſt circular, and about 30 miles in circumference. The country which extends from the Ochil hills to the German ocean, with the Tay on the north-eaſt, and the Forth on the ſouth, was in ancient times called Roſs. The appellation reſulted from its inſular ſituation. This word in the Gothic or Pictiſh language, ſignifies a peninſula: hence Kinroſs or Keanroſs, as it was formerly ſpelled, ſignifies the head of the peninſula; Culroſs, the back of the peninſula; and Muckroſs, the old name for Fifeneſs, the point or ſnout of the peninſula. By this general name it continued to be called, until in later times, as Buchannan informs us, "*Reliquum agri, ad Forthum uſque, ambitio in varias præfecturas diſſecuit, Clackmananam, Culroſſianam et Kinroſſianam.*" The laſt of theſe, about the year 1426, was divided into the two counties of Fife and Kinroſs; and at the revolution, Kinroſs being thought too ſmall a county as it then ſtood, was enlarged by the addition of Orwell, Cleiſh, and Tillibole; which pariſhes before that period had belonged to the county of Fife. But although theſe are two diſtinct counties, and are ſeparately repreſented in parliament, they are both comprehended in the ſheriffdom of Fife. Kinroſsſhire is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by Fifeſhire, and on the north and weſt by Perthſhire. The ſurface of the county is greatly varied. The middle portion, which in point of extent comprehends about one half, occupies a ſituation comparatively low, and may be conſidered as a kind of plain or

flat, ſlightly varied with ſwells of gentle riſing grounds. The ſides of the hills which face the central part of the county, are for the moſt part excellent paſtures which generally retain a beautiful verdure; patches of moor-land occurring only near their ſummits. The aſpect of the whole ſhire is open and expoſed, there being little of it incloſed, and many of the incloſures formed not of hedges but of ſtone-walls.

Of the waters of this county, that which merits attention in the moſt remarkable degree is the lake called *Lochleven*, on the banks of which, at its upper and weſtern extremity, ſtands the town of Kinroſs. It is a noble expanſe of freſh-water, of about 15 miles in circumference. It is remarkable for producing trout of a large ſize, and with fleſh of a pink or reddiſh colour, approaching nearly to the taſte and appearance of ſalmon. Lochleven receives the water of three ſmall rivers and ſeveral ſtreamlets. *Gairny*, the ſouthernmoſt ſtream in the county, is formed of two branches. One of them has its origin in the united pariſhes of Foſſaway and Tilliebole, at no great diſtance from the Devan; the other, its ſouth branch, riſes about the weſt end of Cleiſh pariſh, or the eaſtern point of Foſſaway. The next river to Gairny is *South Quech*, which takes its riſe among the Ochils, as does *North Quech*, another principal ſtream or water, in this county. Lochleven gives riſe to the river *Leven*, which paſſes through a conſiderable part of Fife into the ſea, forming the largeſt water of that county. Beſides Lochleven, there are ſeveral ſmall lakes in the county; of theſe there are four in the pariſh of Cleiſh. The largeſt is about one mile and a half in circumference; the reſt are much ſmaller.

This county produces whinſtone, limeſtone, and marl; it has no coal, but the deficiency is ſupplied by peat.

Among the moſt ſtriking antiquities is the caſtle of Lochleven, a fortreſs of which the time of foundation cannot be aſcertained; it is celebrated for a ſiege which it endured in 1334, but more for having been the place of impriſonment of the unfortunate Mary.

Kinroſs, which is the central and principal town and capital of the county, is the ſeat of the ſheriff, juſtice of peace, and baron-bailie courts. The general appearance of the town is rather mean; but it is delightfully ſituated on an extenſive plain on the weſtern margin of the beautiful lake of Lochleven. The other villages are trifling except that of *Miln-a-thort*, vulgarly pronounced Mills of Forth, from a rivulet upon which are ſeveral mills, and alſo a diſtillery. It is remarkable, though a ſmall village, for having no leſs than three places of worſhip beſide the pariſh church. They belong to

the anti-burghers and Cameronians. The principal manufacture in this county is that of coarſe linens, commonly called ſileſias. In the pariſh of Portmoak is a parchment manufacture. The diſtillation of whiſkey is alſo carried on to a great extent.

The county has 1,409 houſes, and 6,725 inhabitants, of which 390 dwellings, and 2,124 perſons belong to the town of Kinroſs.

KIRKCUDBRIGHT.

THIS may properly be termed a ſtewartry, forming the eaſtern part of the ſhire of Galloway. In ancient times Galloway appears to have comprehended, not only the ſhire of Wigton and the ſtewartry of Kirkcudbright, but alſo the greateſt part, if not the whole, of Airſhire. It had its own princes and its own laws. It acknowledged, however, a feudatory dependence on Scotland.

The ſtewartry of Kirkcudbright is bounded on the ſouth by the Solway Frith, which divides it from England; on the eaſt by Dumfries-ſhire; on the north by that county and Ayrſhire; and on the weſt by the latter county and the ſhire of Wigton. A part of its eaſtern boundary is formed by the eſtuary of the river Nith; and a conſiderable part of its weſtern boundary conſiſts of Wigton bay, which advances to a conſiderable diſtance inland. The ſtewartry contains nearly 864 ſquare miles, or 440,081 Scottiſh acres.

The whole of this country is hilly, and the ſouth weſtern and weſtern parts riſe into mountains of the ſecond rank. The high grounds are covered with heaths and paſture which maintain innumerable herds and flocks, the glens with which they are interſected, are fertile and agreeable, watered by lively rivulets and adorned with neat ſeats and manſions.

The principal river is the *Dee*, which riſing in the mountains near Carrick, winds through an extenſive valley, and entering the Iriſh ſea, forms the harbour of Kirkcudbright. Its other rivers are the *Orr*, *Urr*, or *Whurr*, the *Ken*, the *Fleet*, and the *Cree*; there are alſo ſeveral lochs, none of which are of much importance.

A natural production found toward the eaſtern coaſt of this ſtewartry, deſerves notice. It is called the *ſea anemone*, the animal flower, or water-polypus, and conſidered as the link that connects the animal with the vegetable ſyſtem. It does not poſſeſs a locomotive faculty; and its organs are too imperfect to entitle it to be ranked with animals; but it appears to have

ſomewhat more of *ſenſation* than can be aſcribed to a merely vegetable ſubſtance: like ſome of which, however, it is reproduced from any part cut off. The form of theſe polypuſes is elegantly and pleaſingly diverſified. Some are found reſembling the ſun-flower, ſome the hundred-leaved roſe; but the greater number bear the likeneſs of the poppy. The colours differ as much as the form. Sometimes the animal-flower is of a deep purple, frequently of a roſe colour, and moſtly of a light red or fleſhy hue. The moſt beautiful of them that could be picked up, have often been carried from the ſhore of Colvend 12 or 15 miles up into the country, where they have lived, fed on worms, and even bred for ſeveral weeks; and might have exiſted much longer if they could have been ſupplied with ſea-water. Their lively colours, and the variety of elegant forms in which they are found, equal any thing recited by natural hiſtorians of the ſea-flowers of other climates. It is a ſubject of no ſmall curioſity to ſee a purple, red, or yellow flower ſtriving to catch a worm.

Kirkcudbright labours under great diſadvantages in conſequence of no mineral coal having hitherto been found in it; yet it has a variety of minerals, among them are iron, limeſtone, ſhell-marl, ſlate and lead: copper is alſo ſaid to appear, but none has been produced. There are many chalybeate and other mineral ſprings.

The principal towns in the ſtewartry are, Kirkcudbright, Gatehouſe of Fleet, Creetown, Caſtle Douglas, and New Galloway.

Kirkcudbright is ſuppoſed to derive its name from a church which ſtood near it, and was dedicated to St. Cuthbert. The town is agreeably ſituated, near the foot of the river Dee, at the head of extenſive ſands, which are periodically covered by the tide; and in the midſt of which is ſituated a beautiful, nearly inſulated ſpot, called St. Mary's iſle, a ſeat of the Earl of Selkirk. The harbour of Kirkcudbright is ſituated on the north ſide of Solway Frith, about 10 leagues north-eaſt of the Iſle of Man, and ſeven leagues north-weſt of St. Ree's Head in England. It is a ſafe natural harbour with good anchorage, and ſhelter from all winds, and by much the beſt on the ſouth coaſt of Scotland; but being almoſt a dry harbour, it is proper only for ſuch veſſels as can take the ground. What is called the caſtle of Kirkcudbright, of which a magnificent ruin remains, was built about 1570 upon the ſite of the collegiate church. The town of Kirkcudbright itſelf bears ſome marks of ancient fortifications.

The royal borough called *New Galloway*, is an inland village, in the centre of the ſtewartry, upon the water of Ken. It has

has four annual fairs, and an excellent market for oatmeal and barley.

Caſtle Douglas, formerly called *Carlinwark*, is ſituated upon the loch of that name; it has been erected into a borough of barony, and is a thriving village not more than 30 years old; but in which there are now about 700 inhabitants. The cotton manufacture has here been attempted; but the price of fuel is a grievous impediment.

The *Gatehouſe of Fleet* has alſo had a rapid riſe; its oldeſt houſe is an inn, which was built about the year 1765; but it now contains nearly 1,200 inhabitants. It has been raiſed to its preſent ſize and population by the cotton manufacture, which is eſtabliſhed to a conſiderable extent.

Creetown has lately been erected into a borough of barony. It was formerly denominated the *Ferry Town of Cree*, from the ferry or paſſage boat conſtantly kept there. It is beautifully ſituated at the upper part of Wigton Bay. Some manufactures have lately been introduced. A conſiderable number of veſſels employed in the coaſting trade belong to it, and it is rapidly increaſing.

The remains of antiquity in Kirkcudbright are ſtill numerous; among the moſt diſtinguiſhed ruins are the *Abbey of Sweetheart*, founded in the 13th century; *Hills Caſtle*, formerly belonging to the Douglas family; the college of Lincludden, originally a Benedictine nunnery, *Dundrennan Abbey*, founded in 1142; *Buittle Caſtle*, a favourite reſidence of John Baliol, and *Thrieff Caſtle*, ſituated in an iſland of the river Dee.

Beſide theſe ruins, attention is juſtly directed to the mount, called the *Moat of Urr*, which is perhaps the largeſt work of the kind in Scotland. It ſtands on the weſt bank of the river Urr about half a mile below the church. Some antiquarians conſider theſe artificial hills as the ſpots where courts of juſtice were held in ancient times. Though there is no reaſon for ſuppoſing that this was a Roman work, yet there is little doubt that the neighbourhood was viſited by that people, as their coins have been found on different occaſions.

In the pariſh of Buittle is one of thoſe ruins commonly called *vitrified forts*, which have greatly perplexed antiquaries. They are ſtone buildings, which bear the marks of having ſuffered fire of ſuch intenſeneſs as to bring upon them evident marks of fuſion. Different conjectures have been ſtated to account for the cauſe of this appearance. One of theſe is, that the building was originally conſtructed of ſtone, but bound together with great beams and poſts of timber, in the manner that Cæſar deſcribes the ancient Gauls as having erected their fortifications, to render them difficult to be deſtroyed

ſtroyed by the battering ram. It has been ſuppoſed, however, that when ſuch fortreſſes were aſſailed by fire, the large quantities of timber contained in them, generated ſufficient heat to produce a partial fuſion of the ſtones, and that thus the vitrification was produced at the time of their deſtruction. On the other hand, it has been more generally imagined, that the vitrification was coeval with the exiſtence of the buildings, and that they might be brought into that ſtate in one of two ways: either the walls might be originally built in the centre of a frame of wood, and when they had reached their intended height, the wood being ſet on fire, a great part of the ſtones might be vitrified to ſuch a degree as to cement the whole together; or it has been conjectured, that inſtead of wood, which could ſcarcely produce the effect here ſuppoſed, kelp, or common ſea-weed was uſed; that being intermingled in great abundance, or ſtratified with the ſtones of the building, as is done with bricks or limeſtone in a kiln, and large quantities of the ſame ſubſtance laid over the walls, the whole was ſet on fire, and that thus the ſtones of the wall were ſoftened and cemented together, by being partially reduced to glaſs. In confirmation of this laſt conjecture, it has been remarked, that the kind of ſtones of which ſuch forts are built are actually capable of being eaſily melted or vitrified by the aid of the mineral alkali which abounds in kelp or ſea-weed. It has alſo been obſerved, that all the forts of the kind alluded to, the walls of which appear to have ſuffered partial vitrification, ſtand at no very great diſtance from the ſea-coaſt.

In the pariſh of Kells is to be ſeen a *rocking ſtone*, eight or ten tons in weight, and reſting upon another rock. It is ſo nicely balanced that it can be moved by the preſſure of the finger. It is altogether rude and bears no appearance of workmanſhip.

In the pariſh of Kirkmabrek, near the river Cree, is a remarkable heap of ſtones, called *Cairnholy* or the *Holy Cairn*. According to tradition it was reared over the grave of King Galdus. Several years ago a great many of the ſtones were carried away for the purpoſe of building houſes and dikes, when there were diſcovered large ſtones placed together in form of a cheſt or coffin; but the roof-ſtone being of prodigious magnitude, it has never been removed to ſee what it contains. This tomb has given riſe to much ſpeculation, but nothing certain is known.

The population of this ſtewartry amounts to 29,211. The number of houſes is 5,761.

Kirkcudbright contains 369 houſes; the inhabitants amount to 2,380.

LANARK-

LANARKSHIRE.

THE ſhire of Lanark is very generally denominated *Clydeſdale*, from the river Clyde, which has its ſource in the upper confines of the county, traverſes it in a winding courſe of upwards of 60 miles, dividing it longitudinally, and afterwards wafts the trade of Glaſgow and Paiſley to the ocean. This county is in the centre of the ſouth of Scotland between the Atlantic and German oceans; and is bounded by the counties of Weſt and Mid-Lothian and Peebles on the eaſt, by Dumfrieſhire on the ſouth, by the counties of Ayr and Renfrew on the weſt, and by thoſe of Dumbarton and Stirling on the north. The greateſt length of the ſhire from north to ſouth is about 47 miles; and the greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt about 32 miles. The ſquare contents are perhaps nearly 870 miles, equal to 556,800 Engliſh acres, or nearly 445,440 of the ordinary Scotch meaſure.

It is naturally divided into two equal parts by the Clyde; but its civil diviſions are the upper ward, compriſing a great portion of the ſouth-eaſtern diſtrict; the middle, forming the Midland; and the city and town of Glaſgow, with the under ward, forming the north-weſtern part. The ſoil and face of this county, which at the north-weſtern extremity is rich, well ſprinkled with groves and woods and abounding in every ſpecies of grain, becomes gradually barer and leſs fertile in aſcending the courſe of the Clyde toward the ſouth-eaſt.

The chief water of the county is the *Clyde*, of which ſome deſcription has already been attempted. The minor ſtreams are the *Elwin* and *Glengonar*, the ſands of which were formerly waſhed in the hope of obtaining gold-duſt; the *Little Clyde*, *Dunneſtane*, *Coulter*, *Midwayn*, *Douglas*, and ſeveral other waters which are only deſerving of notice as they contribute to the ſtream of the Clyde. There are alſo the river *Mouſe*, which has on its banks a receſs called Wallace's cave, ſaid to have been a retreat of that hero; the *Logan*, which loſes its name when blended with the Nethan, and the *Avon*, which, after receiving the waters of ſeveral inferior ſtreams, empties itſelf into the Clyde near the town of Hamilton.

The mineral productions of this county are whinſtone, freeſtone, lime, coal of various deſcriptions, iron and iron-ſtone of the ſpecies called *ludus Helmontii* or waxen veins, ætites or eagle-ſtone, ſuppoſed by the ignorant to have beneficial influence on childbirth, and keel, lead, and ſome leſs uſeful mineral productions. The qualities which folly and ſuperſtition aſcribe to the eagle-ſtone, lead to the mention of the adder-

adder-ſtone and ſnake-ſtone, ſaid alſo to be found in Scotland. The account uſually given of the formation of the adder-ſtone is, that at a certain ſeaſon of the year a great number of adders aſſemble, and that the largeſt among them caſts his ſkin, which he does by quick convulſions of his body. Through this ſkin the reſt of the ſerpents force their way with great agility; every one at paſſing through leaving a ſlime or ſlough behind him. By degrees the ſkin becomes conſiderably thick, and upon drying takes the form in which it is afterwards found. To come near the adders while thus employed is ſaid to be attended with no ſmall danger. A circumſtance which is reported to have happened in Moſsflanders, a well known peat-moſs, lying in the counties of Stirling and Perth, is frequently mentioned as a proof of this. A man travelling through the moſs, as the ſtory ſays, chanced to paſs very near the place where a great number of ſerpents were employed making a ſtone. Being perceived by them, they inſtantly ſet up a horrid hiſſing, and with one accord darted after the man, who was forced to flee with all his might to ſave his life. At length, finding himſelf about to be overtaken by his incenſed purſuers, he threw away his plaid that he might run with greater ſpeed. By this circumſtance he made a fortunate eſcape; for returning next day in ſearch of the plaid, he found it full of holes made by the adders, who had forced themſelves through it, and thereby wreaked their vengeance on their imaginary enemy. The adder-ſtone thus produced, or the beads and rings ſubſtituted in its place, is thought by ſuperſtitious people to poſſeſs many wonderful properties. It is uſed as a charm to inſure proſperity, and to prevent the malicious attacks of evil ſpirits. In this caſe, it muſt be cloſely kept in an iron box, to ſecure it from the *fairies*, who are ſuppoſed to have an utter abhorrence of iron. It is alſo worn as an amulet about the necks of children, to cure ſore eyes, chincough, and ſome other diſeaſes, and to aſſiſt them in cutting their teeth. It is ſometimes boiled in water, as a ſpecific for diſeaſes in cattle: but frequently the cure is ſuppoſed to be performed by only rubbing with the ſtone the part affected. The account given of the ſnake-ſtone is nearly ſimilar; but the ſubſtances found and called by theſe names are apparently nothing but antique rings of glaſs, imported during the earlieſt ages by the Phœnicians, and which were of the manufacture of Egypt, Tyre, and Sidon.

Roman roads and camps, cairns, monaſteries, caſtles and other remains of antiquity are found in various parts of the county. Several of theſe are well deſerving of notice, particularly

cularly Bothwell caſtle, church, and bridge, and the priory of Blantyre.

Beſide Glaſgow, which will be mentioned at the cloſe of this head, there are two royal boroughs, Lanark and Rutherglen.

Lanark, from which the county derives its name, is of high antiquity. It conſiſts of a principal ſtreet, which is very ſpacious, and deſcends in a direction toward the Clyde. From its foot, where the church and town-houſe ſtand, a variety of inferior and more narrow ſtreets branch off in different directions. The town is ſaid to have been anciently fortified; no veſtiges of ſuch works can be now diſcovered, but below the town is the Caſtle hill, which has ſomewhat the appearance of an artificial mount, and was perhaps originally fortified by the Romans. The old pariſh church of Lanark is now in ruins, about a quarter of a mile to the ſouth-eaſt of the town. About half a mile to the eaſtward of the town are the ruins of the hoſpital of St. Leonard, probably founded by Robert the Firſt. Lanark has derived activity, opulence, and importance, from ſpacious and well-regulated cotton mills erected in its vicinity; a village called New Lanark is formed for the accommodation of the work people. The town of Lanark has 643 houſes, and 4,692 people; the inhabitants of the village are about 1,500.

Rutherglen is ſituated in the lower ward of the county, on the ſouth bank of the Clyde, two miles and a half to the ſouth-eaſt of Glaſgow, and about nine miles to the weſt of Hamilton. In former times the caſtle of Rutherglen was conſidered as one of the moſt important Scottiſh fortreſſes. During the laſt century it was left to fall into ruins, and by frequent dilapidations was levelled with the ground. The church of Rutherglen is a ſmall but very ancient ſtructure; the oldeſt part of it is 62 feet in length and 25 in breadth.

In the pariſh of Rutherglen are 368 houſes, and 2,437 inhabitants.

The town of *Hamilton* ſtands in a low ſituation upon the Clyde, ſkirting around the bottom of a riſing ground of about three quarters of a mile in length. It is a conſiderable thoroughfare, as the roads from Glaſgow toward England, and from Edinburgh to Ayrſhire, paſs through it. In the middle are the priſon and town-houſe. The pariſh church ſtands above the town upon a riſing ground. Adjoining to the town-houſe ſtands an hoſpital or alms-houſe, which was built inſtead of one that ſtood in the lower part of the town near Hamilton-houſe. It was endowed by the family of Hamilton. At ſome diſtance is another hoſpital for four old men and their families, endowed

endowed in 1775 by Mr. William Aikman, who had been a merchant in Leghorn. At Hamilton was a collegiate church, founded in 1451 by Sir James Hamilton of Cadzow, anceſtor to the Dukes of Hamilton, for a provoſt and ſeveral prebendaries. It is alſo the burial place of that family. Hamilton-houſe, which ſtands on the level valley between the town and the river Clyde, is a large pile, having two deep wings at right-angles with the centre. The collection of paintings is extremely valuable, and has always attracted the attention of travellers. Hamilton has 652 houſes, in which are 5,908 inhabitants.

The city of *Glaſgow*, although not politically the capital of the county, is not only the moſt intereſting object in this part of the county, but may juſtly be regarded as the great capital or centre of the manufactures and commerce of Scotland. Glaſgow ſtands in the nether ward of Lanarkſhire, upon the northern bank of the Clyde; but a part of its ſuburbs has extended to the ſouthern ſide of that river. It may be conſidered, in a general view, as built in the form of a croſs. Two principal and very long ſtreets cut each other at right-angles, and their interſection is in ſome degree to be conſidered as the centre of the city, and is actually denominated the croſs or market-place. The principal part of the city ſtands weſtward and north-weſtward from the interſection of the two great ſtreets, becauſe it is in this direction that the neweſt and moſt elegant buildings of the city, or what is called the New Town, have in a great meaſure been conſtructed. What is called the Green of Glaſgow occupies a conſiderable extent of territory on the ſouth-eaſt, while the gardens and fields belonging to the univerſity fill a conſiderable ſpace on the north-eaſt.

Without attempting minutely to deſcribe or to enumerate the ſtreets and ſquares which compoſe this great city, it may ſuffice to obſerve, that while the ancient part of it exhibits the cuſtomary defects of heavineſs, darkneſs, and inconvenience, the more modern ſtructures are airy, elegant, ſpacious, and well contrived, ſuited to the honeſt luxury of wealthy merchants. It is objected to the new town that its buildings want regularity, but perhaps this is in reality a ſource of beauty, and a relief from the fatigue which the eye is compelled to endure in a progreſs through parallel lines of correſponding buildings, relieved only by ſquares, of which each ſide is a correct ſpecimen of the other three.

One of the moſt important objects connected with this city is the river. Although it contains a large ſtream of water, and the declivity to the Frith of Clyde is very trifling, yet in conſequence

conſequence of the ſoftneſs of the ſoil through which it runs, it naturally ſpreads itſelf to a great breadth, which is productive of a degree of ſhallowneſs inconſiſtent with navigation. Hence, though the ſpring tides flow above the city almoſt to the diſtance of four miles, yet in former times the river was navigable to Glaſgow by none but very ſmall veſſels. This inconvenience was remedied by deepening its bed, and ſtrengthening the canal by means of jetties on the ſides. To defray the expence, a duty of eightpence per ton on coals and one ſhilling per ton on goods or merchandize conveyed from Dumbuck Ford to the city was impoſed, and lighters of ſeventy tons now approach the quay with eaſe. There are three bridges, two of ſtone and a third of wood, which was erected after an unſucceſsful attempt to rear a ſtone bridge. The old bridge oppoſite to the ſtreet called Stockwell, was built in 1350, by William Rae, biſhop of Glaſgow. The new bridge ſtands immediately above the quay; it was begun in 1768, conſiſts of ſeven arches, and is about 500 feet in length and 32 in breadth. Over the centre of each of the pillars, between the arches, is a ſmall circular arch. Theſe give a very light appearance to the bridge; and by allowing a free paſſage to the waters of the river when in flood, contribute to the ſecurity of the fabric.

The town is well paved and lighted; but it is a ſingular circumſtance, that although it ſtands upon a navigable river, and is inhabited by a race of men whoſe enterpriſing ſpirit does not yield to that found any where elſe in the Britiſh iſlands, yet it is very defectively ſupplied with water, and that too of a bad quality. In conſequence of the variety of mineral ſtrata with which this part of the country is enriched, it neceſſarily happens that moſt of the ſprings, whether riſing ſpontaneouſly to the ſurface or reached by digging wells, contain ſome mineral impregnation; and yet it is only from wells or ſprings within its own boundary that this great city is ſupplied.

Glaſgow ſtands in the centre of a great coal field; and that valuable mineral is brought to the ſurface in various quarters around it, and even in its ſuburbs, particularly at Camlachie. To this circumſtance, together with its navigable river, it owes its magnitude and increaſing importance.

The hiſtory of Glaſgow, excepting ſo far as relates to the recent progreſs of its commercial proſperity, contains little that is intereſting. Being a provincial town, known only in ancient times as the reſidence of eccleſiaſtics, it was the ſcene of few remarkable events. It does not appear to have been ever fortified;

tified; and in the turbulent but ſuperſtitious times which preceded the Reformation, as the only wealthy inhabitants were the clergy, they would derive more protection from the reverence paid to their character than from walls and bulwarks. It has been the ſcene of ſome military and ſome eccleſiaſtical conflicts of ſmall importance in the general ſcale of hiſtory, but in general the events by which it can be diſtinguiſhed are only thoſe which attend the progreſs of commercial proſperity, a ſtate in which man is beſet with difficulties and impediments, and in which the fluctuations of fortune are frequently felt; but in which perſeverance and good ſenſe will finally inſure ſucceſs.

According to neceſſities, ariſing from its increaſing population, the city of Glaſgow, from being but one, has been divided into eight pariſhes, called, from the places of performing divine ſervice, the Inner High Church, the Outer High Church, the Tron Church, the College Church, the Wynd Church, the North-Weſt Church, St. Andrew's Church, and St. Enoch's Church, each of which has a ſeparate clergyman, and each a ſeparate kirk-ſeſſion; but, in ſome reſpects, the city, excluſive of the outſkirts called the Barony and Gorbals, is ſtill conſidered as one great pariſh, for the members of all the particular ſeſſions aſſemble together on the firſt Thurſday of every month, in one general ſeſſion, for the diſcuſſion of whatever relates to religious order in the city, or the adminiſtration of the funds allotted to the ſupport of the poor, whether ariſing from the public collections at the churches, or from other charitable donations.

In conſidering the religious eſtabliſhments of Glaſgow, the Cathedral or High Church neceſſarily takes the lead. It is the moſt entire ſpecimen of ancient Gothic architecture in Scotland. The ſee of Glaſgow is ſaid to have been founded about the year 560, by St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was the firſt biſhop. The Cathedral itſelf was begun in 1123 by John Achaius, biſhop of Glaſgow; conſecrated in 1136 in preſence of David the Firſt, King of Scotland, and dedicated to St. Kentigern or to St. Mungo, a wonder-working ſaint of great celebrity. At the Reformation, the Archbiſhop of Glaſgow was James Beaton, nephew to Cardinal Beaton, Archbiſhop of St. Andrews; he attempted at firſt to defend himſelf againſt the turbulent attacks of the reformers. He made an alliance with the Duke of Chatelherault, who agreed to defend, and he fortified his caſtle; but finding the torrent of public ſentiment too ſtrong to be reſiſted, he fled to France in 1560, carrying with him the archives of his ſee, which he depoſited in the Scots College at Paris, in the monaſtery of Carthuſians.

He likewiſe took with him the relicks of ſaints which were preſerved in the Cathedral, together with the moſt valuable moveables contained in it. The furious zealots of reformation were deſirous of deſtroying the building as a vaſt monument of the idolatry of their forefathers, but partly by management and partly by force they were prevented.

The Cathedral ſtands at the upper or northern part of the High-ſtreet, in a very elevated ſituation, commanding a view of the vale of Clyde, from the mountain of Tintoc on the eaſt, to Paiſley, Greenock, and the mountains of Argyleſhire on the weſt. Immediately to the eaſt of the Cathedral is a deep ravine, in which flows the Molleandinar or Gallowgate Burn, and in its vicinity, on the oppoſite ſide, is a modern public building, the Infirmary, which forms a ſtriking contraſt to the rude majeſty of this ancient Gothic fabric. The length of the Cathedral, within the walls, is 339 feet, and its breadth 72 feet. The height of the choir, from the floor to the roof, is 90 feet; that of the nave, now called the Inner High Church, 85 feet. The circumference of the walls, without following the windings of the aiſles, is 975 feet. It is ſupported by 147 pillars, and lighted by 157 windows. Like all buildings of a ſimilar nature, it is in the form of a croſs, whoſe greateſt length runs from eaſt to weſt, and its tranſverſe or ſhorteſt length, from north to ſouth. On the outſide of the building, the walls which run eaſt and weſt are ſupported, or rather aided, by ſtrong pillars or buttreſſes ſtanding out from the walls, but leaning toward them. Between each of the great pillars are placed Gothic windows of different dimenſions. This ſucceſſion of pillars and windows proceeds along the whole outſide of the ſide walls of the building from eaſt to weſt, excepting at the centre, where the tranſverſe part of the croſs projects outward on both ſides. The ends of this projection contain each a great window on oppoſite ſides of the Cathedral, 40 feet high and 22 feet in breadth at the baſe. Along the ſide walls the alternate windows and pillars reach nearly to the commencement of the roof at the ſummit of the wall. From the wall ſprings the roof, which riſes obliquely inward, and thereafter reaches a ſecond or inner wall, the whole length of which is divided, like the lower or front wall, by pillars or projections, between each of which are three narrow Gothic windows on the ſame line with the windows of the lower ſtory. The inner ſide walls ſupport a roof which is covered with lead. The inner walls reſt upon Gothic arches ſupported by pillars within the building. This church has two towers or ſteeples; one of theſe, at the weſt end, is a ſquare tower, which riſes about

thirty feet above the roof, and thereafter terminates in a roof in the form of a pyramid, which is covered with lead. The great tower or ſteeple riſes from the centre of the whole building. Its form, to the height of about thirty feet from the roof of the Cathedral, is ſquare, terminating in a battlement and balluſtrade. Within the battlement an octangular ſpire of a tapering form aſcends, and is terminated by a vane. The octangular ſpire is adorned by two balluſtrades, and by ſeveral Gothic windows. The height of this middle ſteeple is 223 feet from the floor of the choir, or 323 feet above the level of the Clyde. In the leſſer ſteeple is placed a clock and a great bell, which is twelve feet one inch in circumference, and has a grave and deep note. It is rung at the hour of ten every evening. In 1789 it was accidentally cracked by ſome perſons who had got admiſſion to the ſteeple; it was therefore ſent to London and caſt anew. The chapter-houſe was in the north croſs of the Cathedral, and had a communication with the nave by a vaulted entry. The ſouth croſs was never completed, and is at preſent uſed as a burying-place for the clergy of the city. Its architecture appears to have been finer than that of the reſt of the building; its arched roof being ſupported by columns adjoining to the outer walls, which ſupport Gothic arches. There is alſo a row of pillars in the centre; the capitals of the whole are highly ornamented. The ſouth part of the croſs is ſuppoſed to be of no older date than 1500. The area of the top of it is at preſent formed into an ornamented piece of garden ground. The conſiſtorial houſe, in which the biſhop's courts were formerly held, projects from the ſouth-weſt corner of the Cathedral. The principal gate, which is now ſhut up, is large and magnificent. It is on the weſt, betwixt the conſiſtorial houſe and the loweſt tower or ſteeple. The uſual entries are on the ſouth. The building is at preſent occupied by three churches, beſide the choir, which remains in ſome degree empty. Theſe are called the Outer Church, Inner High Church, and Barony Church. The outer church was formerly a part of the choir; from the reſt of which it is at preſent ſeparated by a diviſion wall of ſtone. Here are to be ſeen two rows of Gothic columns, which ſupport the inner ſide walls of the Cathedral. Arches ſpring from the top of the pillars, and connect them with each other. Upon theſe arches the inner ſide walls are built. In the choir is to be ſeen the ſame range of pillars, with windows between each. The four moſt eaſterly pillars are very maſſy; each of them is thirty feet in circumference and eighty-eight feet in height; they ſupport the great ſteeple in the centre of the

church. Here an organ, belonging to the inſtitution for ſacred muſic, has been erected.

In the inner High Church is to be ſeen to advantage the lofty arched roof which ſprings from the top of the inner walls; on the eaſt, in the area which is now at the back of the pulpit, ſtood the altar; northward from which is the veſtry, the roof of which is ſupported by a ſingle pillar nineteen feet in height, from which ſpring arches in all directions toward pillars in each angle of the houſe. The Barony Church is a very diſmal place, ſituated immediately under the nave, or inner High Church, to the eaſt of the croſs. It was formerly uſed as a burying vault; at the eaſtern part of it, immediately below the great altar, is ſhown the monument of St. Mungo or Kentigern, and the baſon for containing the holy water. Upon the whole, this vaſt maſſy pile conveys a high idea of the power of the church in ancient times, and no ſmall opinion of the architectural ſkill of the age in which it was erected. Around the Cathedral is the principal burying-ground of the city.

The College-church derives its name from its vicinity to the college or univerſity, to the ſouthward of which it is placed. Little taſte or ornament appears in it.

The Tron or Laigh Church, which ſtands in the Trongate, near the head of King-ſtreet, the ſteeple of which projects into the ſtreet, and is ſeen from the croſs, is a handſome modern building erected in 1794. The ſteeple or ſpire, one of the ornaments of the moſt extenſive ſtreet in this city, was built in 1637, and is 126 feet in height.

The Wynd Church, at the back of King-ſtreet, was originally built by the Preſbyterian diſſenters during the reign of James the Seventh. It has ſince been rebuilt by the city: it has no ſpire or bell.

The north-weſt or Ram's-horn Church was built by the community of Glaſgow in 1724. It has a ſpire 140 feet high, and a clock; but contains nothing remarkable.

St. Andrew's Church, in the centre of the ſquare of that name, is an elegant oblong building, which was begun in 1739, but was not finiſhed till 1756. The ſteeple has been ſaid by Mr. Pennant to have a pepper-box top: it is crowned with a dome beneath the ſpire, on which the weather-cock is placed; and by its injudicious conſtruction the upper part of it ſeems to a ſpectator larger, or of a greater diameter, than the lower part.

St. Enoch's Church ſtands at the ſouthern part of the ſquare of the ſame name. The foundation-ſtone was laid 12th April 1780. It is well lighted, and handſomely finiſhed within.

The moſt recent of the churches of Glaſgow is that of the New Barony. The deſign was given by the Adams', but it has been executed in a very coarſe manner.

The village of Gorbals alſo has its own church and burying-ground, and forms a ſeparate pariſh.

Beſide theſe there are three chapels belonging to the eſtabliſhment; the College-chapel, the free Preſbyterian meeting-houſe, and a third in which divine ſervice is performed partly in the Engliſh language and partly in Gaelic, for the accommodation of the natives of the Highlands who reſide in the city. There is alſo the Engliſh chapel, in which ſervice is performed according to the manner of the church of England; the common people, on account of its organ, call it the *wbiſſling kirk*. There are alſo two Burgher and one Anti-burgher meeting-houſes; a place of worſhip belonging to a congregation of Independents; one or perhaps two for Anabaptiſts; one for Glaſſites; a large Methodiſt meeting-houſe; two large houſes and two congregations of the Relief communion; beſides a large church in Anderſton, another in the Calton, and a popiſh meeting. The lateſt of the religious eſtabliſhments is that denominated the Tabernacle, it belongs to a new ſect which ſends forth itinerant preachers to different quarters of the country, holds correſpondence with the Engliſh Methodiſts, and does not limit its adherence to a ſtrict attachment to any particular denomination of Chriſtians.

The principal literary inſtitution in Glaſgow is the univerſity, which will be noticed hereafter.

There are beſide, the grammar-ſchool, or Latin ſchool, in George-ſtreet; Wilſon's ſchool, for clothing and educating forty-eight boys; Crawford's and Baxter's ſchools, in each of which forty-eight girls and boys; and Tennant's, where ninety-ſix are educated but not cloathed. There are alſo ſome other ſchools for girls, and many Sunday ſchools. Stirling's library, founded by a gentleman of that name, is an increaſing and uſeful eſtabliſhment; the corporation of ſurgeons have a hall and library, and there are ſeveral literary ſocieties, all tending to ſpread and keep alive the love of knowledge.

Glaſgow has ſeveral charitable foundations. The hoſpital of St. Nicholas was eſtabliſhed by Biſhop Muirhead, about the middle of the fifteenth century; it maintained originally twelve old men and a prieſt, but its revenues are now almoſt loſt. The merchants' and the trades' hoſpitals were both in exiſtence at the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, but they are ſlenderly endowed. Hutcheſon's hoſpital, founded in 1639, was intended for twelve old men and as many boys, but has been extended ſo as to receive, in addition, as many women.

women. The Town's hoſpital is a more ample charity; it was founded in 1730, and its revenue is about 1,400*l.* a-year. There are alſo charities known by the names of Scott's Mortification, and Mitchell's Mortification; a diſpenſary, a Magdalen aſylum, and various gifts from the corporations and from voluntary aſſociations.

The city is governed by a town-council, conſiſting of a provoſt, five baillies, a dean of guild, a deacon-convener, a maſter of works, and twenty-three councilmen, twelve of whom are merchants, and the remaining eleven belong to the incorporated trades. The armorial bearing of the city exhibits an oak tree with a bird above; at the foot a ſalmon, with a gold ring in its mouth; and on a branch on the left ſide, a bell; the mótto, "Let Glaſgow flouriſh." Before the Reformation, St. Mungo's head mitred was on the right of the ſhield, with two ſalmons for ſupporters. The ſalmon and the ring in the Glaſgow arms are accounted for by the following legend: In the days of St. Kentigern, a lady having loſt her wedding ring, it ſtirred up her huſband's jealouſy; to allay which ſhe applied to St. Kentigern, imploring his help for the ſafety of her honour. Not long after, as St. Kentigern walked by the river, he deſired a perſon that was fiſhing to bring him the firſt fiſh he could catch, which was accordingly done, and from its mouth was taken the lady's ring; the recovery whereof in this manner effectually took away her huſband's ſuſpicion.

There are alſo within the city proper eſtabliſhments for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for regulation of the police.

Glaſgow contains 21,460 houſes, and 77,385 people.

The whole county has 33,803 dwellings and 146,699 inhabitants.

Linlithgowshire, or West Lothian.

The appellation of this ſhire is plainly derived from the name of the county town, which itſelf obtained its deſcriptive title from the ſingular ſite of its loch, or lin. The location of this lake may properly be called a broad concavity. Linlith-cu is the moſt ancient appellation which, in the language of the Britiſh ſettlers in the earlieſt times of colonization, ſignifies the concavity of the expanſive lin, or loch. The length of this county on the eaſt ſide, from the foot of Almon on the north-eaſt, to the top of Briech water on the ſouth-eaſt, is nearly twenty-one miles; the breadth is twelve miles. The ſuperficial contents of the whole appear from very minute cal-

culations to be 121 ſquare miles, or 77,440 ſtatute acres. It is divided from the county of Edinburgh on the eaſt and ſouth by the water of Almond, and by the Briech, which is one of the ſtreams that fall into the Almond. It is divided from Stirlingſhire on the weſt by the water of Avon; and here and on the ſouth-weſt it touches a part of Lanarkſhire.

In this ſhire are many objects worthy the attention of the naturaliſt. None of its protuberances riſe into lofty eminences, neither is its ſurface by any means flat: it is diverſified by a number of ſmall hills. The moſt remarkable of them form a range, which runs from Bowden, acroſs the middle of the county, in an oblique direction from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. Cairn-naple, the moſt prominent centre of this range, riſes to the height of 1,498 feet above the level of the ſea; and Cocklerne, on the weſtern part, riſes 500 feet. The Kipps hills, Knocks hills, and Drumcroſs hills, are all conſpicuous parts of this range, of which Ricardton edge and Binny craig may alſo be deemed a portion. The ſecond claſs of hills which are worthy of notice, is variouſly diſtributed throughout the northern parts of the county, along the Forth; of thoſe the moſt conſpicuous are Mons hill, Craigie hill, and Dundas hill, in Dalmenie pariſh; Craigton hill and Binns hill, in Abercorn pariſh; and Irongarth, in Linlithgow pariſh. The middle and weſtern diſtricts of the county are the moſt hilly: the eaſt and north are the moſt plain. The ſouthern diviſions of this ſhire conſiſt moſtly of moor, moſs, and moraſs, with few heights of any elevation. In general, the hills in this ſhire are both uſeful and ornamental; nearly the whole of them affording abundant paſturage from a graſſy ſurface; many of them being ornamented with woods, and ſome of them containing valuable minerals.

In Linlithgowſhire there are not many waters of great extent. The only lakes are the loch at Linlithgow town, and Lochcoat in Torphichen pariſh. The *lake at Linlithgow* occupies about 154 Engliſh acres, and contains pike, perch, and eels. *Lochcoat* empties its ſuperfluous water by a ſtream from its north-weſt end, which falls into what is appropriately called the Eel Ark; and from thence runs under ground more than two hundred paces, when it breaks out by a ſpring which forms a ſtreamlet that flows into the Avon. Of large rivers this county cannot boaſt, yet it is well watered by ſeveral ſtreams for every domeſtic purpoſe, while the Almond on the eaſt, and the Avon on the weſt, are the only conſiderable riverets. The *Almond* is chiefly formed by three ſmall ſtreamlets which riſe within the eaſtern border of Lanarkſhire; and being joined by the Breich, the united ſtream flows in an eaſy courſe

courſe between Linlithgowſhire and Edinburghſhire, till its fall into the Forth at Cramond, after a courſe of 24 miles, that forms the drain of Edinburgh on the weſt, and Linlithgow on the eaſt. The Almond receives alſo Broks burn, with ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams which drain the eaſtern diſtricts of this county. The *Avon* (which more properly belongs to Stirlingſhire, wherein it riſes, and traverſing that ſhire for ſix or ſeven miles, enters Linlithgow at Weſt Straith), ſeparates the two conterminous ſhires throughout a courſe of a dozen miles, when it falls into the Forth. The Avon as it flows receives ſome ſupplies from *Logie water*, which drains much of the weſtern diviſions of Linlithgow; and from the *Linn burn*, that forms the boundary of the two counties, throughout four miles, before it mixes with the Avon. With other rivulets, *Midhope burn* and *Dolphinſton burn* drain the northern parts of this ſhire. The Avon and the Almond are more uſeful for the driving of mills than beneficial for fiſh, which have been forced from their haunts by the operations of agriculture and manufacture. The Avon has long been the weſtern limit of Lothian; but the *Forth*, either as an object of ornament or as a contributor of profit, is of the greateſt importance to Linlithgowſhire. It waſhes ſixteen miles of the northern ſhores of this county. This eſtuary ſupplies ſites for ſalt-pans, fiſh for food, and harbours for traffic. The banks of the Forth are generally high, except towards the weſt, where a tract of two thouſand acres is left dry at every reflux of the tide, nearly oppoſite to the pariſh of Borrowſtowneſs.

This ſmall county abounds with minerals of the moſt uſeful kind. Pit-coal is ſaid to have been dug in the pariſh of Borrowſtowneſs, upwards of 500 years ago. It has continued to be raiſed in great quantities, and other pariſhes produce it in plenty, and of excellent quality; much is uſed in the ſalt-pans and other works, and a large quantity is exported. Limeſtone alſo every where abounds in this county; is manufactured to great profit, and diſtributed to general advantage. The whole ſhire ſeems to ſtand on a bed of free-ſtone, which is of the fineſt quality; and is diſtributed largely for domeſtic ſupply and for foreign uſe. There are ſeveral other ſorts of ſtone, ſuch as whin-ſtone, granite, ſlate-ſtone, and baſaltes. On Dundas hill is a baſaltic rock 250 yards long and about 60 feet high, with an almoſt perpendicular front; the whole conſiſting of a bluiſh granite of very fine texture. In Borrowſtowneſs, in Torphichen, in Bathgate, in Abercorn, and perhaps in other pariſhes, iron-ſtone is found in great abundance. Silver and lead mines have been formerly wrought in Linlithgow pariſh to ſome account. A vein of ſilver was diſcovered

in a lime-ſtone rock within Bathgate pariſh, but the produce did not pay the expence of raiſing the ore. In the rivulets, within Torphichen pariſh, mundic has been found. This ſhire is rich in marl; ſhell marl was dragged from Linlithgow loch in conſiderable quantities, till the benefits of lime, as a manure, ſuperſeded the uſe of it. Here, too, are found fuller's earth, potter's clay, brick clay, and red chalk.

The town of *Linlithgow* conſiſts of one principal ſtreet, neatly built, on the bank of a lake. David I. had here a caſtle and a grange. After many intermediate political events, the firſt parliament of Charles II., in January 1661, paſſed an act of ratification in favour of the borough of Linlithgow. This ſhire town ranks as the ſixth among the royal boroughs of Scotland. Under the union, it was aſſociated with the towns of Lanark, Selkirk, and Peebles, in the privilege of ſending a repreſentative to the united parliament. The moſt remarkable object in Linlithgow is the palace, now in ruins. It ſtands on a riſing ground running into a lake; a ſituation which could ſcarcely fail to prove pleaſing. It has, when viewed from the north, the appearance of an amphitheatre, with a deſcent on three ſides, and terrace walks on the weſt. King Edward the Firſt built a palace, or rather fort, upon this ſpot, in which he reſided a whole winter. It was afterwards ſubjected to many viciſſitudes, and after the acceſſion of the Stuart family to the throne, became a fixed royal reſidence; and the queens of Scotland had it in ſeveral inſtances aſſigned to them as a jointure-houſe. It is at preſent a magnificent ruin, the greater part of it five ſtories high. The inſide of it is embelliſhed with good ſculpture, conſidering the time in which it was executed. Over the inſide of the grand gate was a ſtatue of Pope Julius the Second, with the triple crown, who ſent a conſecrated ſword and helmet to James the Fifth. It long eſcaped the fury of the Reformers; but at laſt, in the early part of the late century, a zealous blackſmith deſtroyed it. The palace is all poliſhed ſtone, and covers an acre of ground. Here was born, on the 8th of December, 1542, the unfortunate Queen Mary. Her father, James the Fifth, then dying at Falkland, of a broken heart, for the miſcarriage at Solway Moſs, foretold the miſeries that hung over her and Scotland. "It came," ſaid he, "with a woman," (alluding to the manner in which the family of Stuart obtained the crown by a marriage into the family of Bruce,) "and it will be loſt with one." The chapel was built by James the Fifth. The church is a handſome building, and ſome of the windows are extremely elegant. Here is ſtill ſhewn the aiſle where King James the Fourth ſaw the apparition that warned him of the impending

impending fate of the battle of Flodden. There is no doubt that while the king attended the evening ſervice in Saint Catharine's aiſle, one in an unuſual form and habit, ſuddenly appeared, and diſſuaded him from the expedition into England, on which he was ſo ſtrongly bent. It is ſuppoſed to have been a ſtratagem of his queen; but the cataſtrophe which followed, in a ſuperſtitious and credulous age, converted it into a real apparition and a prophecy, though it is evident that the king himſelf had given it no credit. The church, which is uſed for parochial ſervice, is a fine Gothic building.

In this ſhire are other towns, though of leſs populouſneſs and dignity. The royal borough of *Queen's Ferry* is of recent date, while its name is old, ſuppoſed to be derived from Margaret Queen of Malcolm Kenmore. Under the union, it has the privilege of chooſing a repreſentative, with the other boroughs of Stirling, Inverkeithing, Dumfermline, and Culroſs.

Borrowſtowneſs is a burgh of regality; and, as a ſea-port, contains induſtrious people, who employ many ſhips.

Bathgate is a borough of barony, from early times, which has ſeven yearly fairs, and ſome internal traffic.

Whitburn is a burgh of barony; and *Brockſburn*, and *Blackburn*, are market towns, which have ariſen, in recent times, from the efforts of induſtry.

The ſhire contains 2,956 houſes, and 17,844 inhabitants. The town of Linlithgow has 489 houſes, and 3,594 people.

NAIRNSHIRE.

THIS ſmall county is ſituated on the coaſt and forms the weſtern part of the county or province of Moray. It is about 20 miles in length, in breadth 14. The country conſiſts of rough mountains covered with heath or paſture, and tufted with large woods of fir, but theſe heights are interſected by a few ſtraths or valleys not inferior in fertility to the other northern parts of Scotland, and producing oats and barley. It is watered by the river *Findhorn*, which runs from the ſouth-weſt to the north-weſt; and there is alſo the ſtream called the *water of Nairn*, which takes its riſe in the hills of Inverneſs-ſhire.

The principal part of the ſhire is peopled by the Fraſers. by ſome conſidered as the moſt warlike clan of Scotland. Their general occupation is feeding ſheep and black cattle. The trade and manufactures of the county are too trifling to deſerve notice.

This

This diſtrict contains many villages, but no place of note except *Nairn*, a royal burgh, ſituated on the bank of the Nairn. Its harbour, which opened into the Moray frith, and which was probably once not inconſiderable, is now nearly choked with ſand. It has 549 houſes, and 2,215 inhabitants.

At Ardeſier, a ſmall iſthmus, about ſix miles north-weſt of Nairn, is a ſmall fort recently built to command the Moray frith.

This ſhire joins with Cromarty in ſending alternately a member to parliament.

The population amounts to 8,257 ſouls; the number of houſes is 1,972.

Orkney.

The ſhire of Orkney compriſes the Orkney and Shetland iſlands, of which an account will be given together with the other iſles of Scotland.

Peebles-shire or Tweeddale.

The appellation of this county is derived from the Celtic name of the ſhire town. On the north it is bounded by Midlothian or county of Edinburgh; on the ſouth by Dumfries-ſhire; on the eaſt by Selkirkſhire or Ettrick foreſt; and on the weſt by the county of Lanark. From the moſt accurate calculations, it appears that the ſuperficies of the whole ſhire is 338 ſquare miles, containg 216,320 ſtatute acres.

The outline of the ſurface of Peebles-ſhire, conſiſting of alternations of hill and dale, is the moſt ſtriking of its natural features. From the dale of the Tweed, which forms the centre of the county, the ſurface riſes on both its ſides, to the ſouth and to the north: the hills toward the extremities of the ſhire mount to the greateſt heights; the mountains, which ſeparate Tweeddale from Annandale, are the higheſt in ſouthern Scotland; and there are many other hills of very great elevation.

In the midſt of all its inequalities of ſurface, Peebles-ſhire cannot boaſt of its lakes; nor can the topographers of this county be allowed to aſſume the *St. Mary loch* of Selkirkſhire as their own, although its weſtern margin, for more than a mile, forms the boundary of Peebles-ſhire. The moſt conſiderable lake in this county is the beautiful water *loch* in *Edleſton* pariſh; it is nearly three quarters of a mile long, and half a mile broad; and abounds in pike and eels, while it is the

perio-

periodical reſort of wild fowl, which dip the wing in water. On the eſtate of *Slipperfield*, in *Linton* pariſh, there is a lake of nearly a mile and a half in circumference, which breeds pike and perch but not eels, as the water is impregnated with moſs. The only other lake which diverſifies this ſhire, is *Gameſhope loch*, within the boſom of an uninhabited glen, in Tweedſmuir pariſh; and which is emptied by *Gameſhope burn*, one of the ſources of Talla water.

Yet is Peebles-ſhire well watered by many ſtreams. The *Tweed* is the great channel, which collects and carries off the whole moiſture of "this miſty mountain ground." This celebrated river riſes on the mountainous ridge that ſeparates Tweeddale from Annandale; at Drummellier it receives the united ſtreams of Holms, Kilbucho, and Biggar. In its winding courſe it receives the water of ſeveral other rivers; the moſt conſiderable are the *Lyne*, the *Edleſton*, and the *Leithen*, which fall into this common reſervoir, on the north, and the *Manor* and *Quair* on the ſouth. The *Lyne* riſes in the ſouthern declivity of Cairn hill, on the north-weſtern limits of Peebles-ſhire; and collecting in a courſe of 21 miles the ſtreamlets that drain the pariſhes of Linton, Newlands, Kirkurd, and Lyne, it conſigns all their cognate waters to the Tweed. The Lyne has retained, through many a change, its Britiſh appellation, which is nothing more than the Britiſh llynn, ſignifying what flows, a fluid. The only ſtream in Peebles-ſhire which does not convey its waters to the Tweed is the *Megget*. Originating in two ſources, the one rivulet from the declivities of Cairn law, and the other rill from the moſs of Winterhope, the Megget drains the dreary pariſh of the Megget, and pours its collected waters into *St. Mary's loch*; whence they paſs on to the *Yarrow* and the *Ettrick*, while both join the Tweed. Every water in Tweeddale produces trout, ſome of them par and ſome of them ſalmon; and each gives its uſefulneſs, and each contributes its ornament.

Peebles-ſhire abounds in minerals. Newlands and Linton pariſhes ſupply the whole county with coals, except the eaſtern diſtricts, which derive their coal and lime from the Lothians. Limeſtone alſo abounds, and happily moſt where there is the moſt coal. Marl alſo is found where the limeſtone exiſts. In Linton and Newlands are various beds of marl, of the white or ſhelly, and alſo the blue kind. In Newlands pariſh, on the eſtate of La Mancha, there is an endleſs variety of clays. It has, particularly, a very thick bed of fire clay, like that of Stourbridge. It has *alum ſlate* in abundance, and both red and yellow ochres, with veins of manganeſe. In Linton pariſh a ſmall ſeam of fuller's earth has been diſcovered;

vered; Newlands and Linton pariſhes alſo abound with free-ſtone. Between both thoſe pariſhes, on the hilly ridge of Broomylees, there are ſeveral quarries of red freeſtone, which is of a firmer texture than the white. Whinſtone is the prevailing rock throughout the county, but it is not much demanded. The ſlate quarries have long been famous. White marble, too, has been found in Linton pariſh; Newlands pariſh abounds in iron-ore and iron-ſtone; but it is not metallic enough to afford the carriage to diſtant founderies; there is ſaid alſo to be copper and loadſtone. In Leadlaw, a hill above Linton, ſeveral lead mines were formerly wrought; and ſome ſilver was extracted from the ore: the ſinks or pits, which were wrought on Leadlaw, are ſtill apparent; and even now bear the appropriate name of Silverholes. If credit may be given to the ancient hiſtorians, Boece and Buchanan, gold has been formerly found in Glen-gaber water, which traverſes Megget pariſh, the pooreſt diſtrict (with all its gold) in Tweeddale.

Among other antiquities, this county boaſts the grave of Merlin. Near the influx of Powſail with the Tweed, a thorn-tree marks the ſacred ſpot, where lies inhumed the renowned prophet. Tradition has preſerved his tale; ſuperſtition has repeated ſaws; and the finger of age points to the eye of curioſity his very grave. This ancient prophet was the cauſe of prophecy in others: and during King James's time, ſome ſeer foretold that,

> "When Tweed and Powſail meet at Merlin's grave,
> "Scotland and England ſhall one monarch have."

Doctor Pennycuick has recorded the fulfilment of this prophecy: On the ſame day, ſays the doctor, that our King James was crowned King of England, the river Tweed ſo far overflowed its banks that it met with Powſail at the ſaid grave by ſuch an extraordinary flood as had never been obſerved before nor ſince that time. Yet has the doctor left it undecided, whether the prophecy begat the flood or the flood the prophecy.

The ſhire town claims ſome notice. The name of *Peebles* implies, that ſome habitations were placed on the iſthmus, which is formed by the junction of Peebles-water with the Tweed, during Britiſh times. At the commencement of the Scoto-Saxon period there was undoubtedly here a village, a church, a mill, and a brewhouſe; and as early, perhaps, a royal caſtle, with a chapel and other accommodations, which a town can only ſupply. The kings reſided occaſionally at Peebles till the ſad demiſe of Alexander III., who left it

marks of his munificence. When it became a royal burgh, with ſpecial privileges, is uncertain. It is certain, however, that it ſent two repreſentatives to the parliament of 1357, which was called to ratify and to provide the ranſom of David II. David II. granted Peebles a charter, dated the 20th September 1367, which made it a royal borough; and which was confirmed by a charter of James II., and by another from King James VI. in 1621. Robert Bruce conferred on this burgh a free market, and there are ſeveral leſs important grants by other ſovereigns. Doctor Pennycuick has given the following quaint and curious deſcription of this town.

" Peebles, the metropolis of the ſhire,
" Six times three praiſes doth from me require;
" Three ſtreets, three parts, three bridges, it adorn,
" And three old ſteeples, by three churches, born;
" Three mills, to ſerve their town, in time of need,
" On Peebles water, and the river Tweed,
" Their arms are proper, and point furth their meaning,
" Three ſalmon fiſhes nimbly counter-ſweeming."

This town contains 411 houſes; the number of inhabitants is 2,088. In the county are 1,746 houſes, and 8,735 people.

PERTHSHIRE.

THE county of Perth is one of the largeſt in Scotland. It may be conſidered as an inland diſtrict, becauſe, although it comes in contact with the eſtuaries of two great rivers, it in no quarter extends to the ſhore of the ocean. Its extent in a right line from eaſt to weſt, that is, from Blairgowrie to Benloi, amounts to 77 miles. Its breadth, from the Frith of Forth at Culroſs on the ſouth, to the northern extremity of Athol, is not leſs than 68 miles. It contains 5000 ſquare miles, that is, 3,200,000 Scottiſh acres, or 4,068,640 Engliſh acres. It is bounded on the eaſt by the county of Forfar; on the ſouth-eaſt by the counties of Fife and Kinroſs; the Firth of Tay producing the ſeparation of a conſiderable diſtance between it and Fife. Perthſhire is bounded on the ſouth by the Forth and the county of Stirling, and alſo by the ſmall county of Clackmannan, which it embraces on two ſides. It is bounded on the ſouth-weſt by Dumbartonſhire; on the weſt by Argyleſhire; and on the north-weſt and north by Inverneſs-ſhire and Aberdeenſhire. The county contains, according to the common language of the country, the diſtricts of Athol, Breadalbane, Rannoch, Strathearn, Balquhidder, Monteath, Gowrie, Perth proper, and Stormont. All theſe diviſions were in former times denominated *ſtewartries*, and were placed under the here-

ditary

ditary juriſdiction of the great proprietors. The county, however, is more naturally divided into the two diſtricts of Highland and Lowland. The vaſt chain of Grampian mountains runs along the northern and north-weſtern parts of the county, and a large portion of the area of Perthſhire is occupied by theſe mountains. The ſouthern part of the Grampians forms alſo the ſouthern boundary of the Highlands of Scotland; and the territory to the ſouth-eaſt of the Grampians is conſidered as belonging to the Lowlands. Eighteen pariſhes in Perthſhire belong to the Highlands, and 58 to the Lowlands; but the Highland pariſhes are of great extent, and ſome of them cover a tract of country equal to eight or ten pariſhes in the lower and more fertile diſtricts.

The general aſpect of this county, both from the extent of its ſurface, and from its including ſome of the wildeſt parts of the Highlands, as well as ſome of the moſt fertile territory in Scotland, is neceſſarily much diverſified. Perhaps no diſtrict in the world exhibits ſcenes of more rugged and uncultivated magnificence, contraſted with ſcenes that have been adorned by ſkilful cultivation, and by all the arts of poliſhed life.

It is unneceſſary to ſay more concerning the celebrated and vaſt mountainous chain called the Grampians, than that they conſiſt of enormous piles, from the expoſed ſummits of many of which the ſoil has been waſhed by the beating of the winter ſtorms which they have encountered for ſo many ages. Beneath the ſummit of the higher mountains, and where the rock breaks out of the ſurface, they generally conſiſt of a mooriſh ſoil, conſidered, however, as greatly ſuperior in value to ſome mountainous tracts in England. The vallies that wind among theſe mountains are generally extenſive and cultivated. At the foot of the Grampians is the fertile diſtrict of Strathmore. This valley is bounded on the ſouth by a chain called the Sidley or Sidlaw hills, running toward the north-eaſt from Perth in a direction parallel to the Grampians. To the ſouthward of the Sidlaw hills within this county the country deſcends toward the Frith of Tay, forming the diſtrict of the Carſe of Gowrie. Strathearn ſucceeds to Strathmore, and is a ſort of continuation of it weſtward. It is bounded on the ſouth, to a conſiderable diſtance, by the chain called the Ochils, from which the country deſcends ſouthward to the Frith of Forth. The ſouth-weſtern part of the county, containing the mountains of Benlady, Bencochon, and others, may be conſidered as the ſouthern ſkirts of the Grampians, bounding to the north the upper valley of the Forth, which here becomes the extremity of the Lowlands.

The

The following are the heights of the mountains or other places in Perthſhire which are moſt remarkable either on account of their elevation, or conſpicuous on account of their ſituation and importance:

	Feet.
Dunſinnan Hill — —	1,040
King-ſeat Hill — —	1,179
Mordun Hill — —	640
Barra Hill — —	676
Belmont Caſtle — —	203
Birnam Hill — —	1,580
Junction of the rivers Hla and Tay	93
Tay Bridge — —	283
Eaſt end of Loch Tay —	350
Farragon — —	2,584
Ben Lawers — —	4,015
Ben More — —	3,903
Schichallion — —	3,564
Athol Houſe — —	504
Ben Gload — —	3,724
Ben Doig — —	3,550
Loch Earn — —	304
Tortum — —	1,400
Ben Chenzie (Strathearn) —	2,922
Ben Vorlich — —	3,300
Ben Ledi — —	3,009
Demyet — —	1,345
Ben Clach (Ochils) — —	2,420

The waters of this county are numerous and important. The river *Forth*, after riſing near the foot of Ben Ledi in Dunbartonſhire, at the ſouth-weſt corner of this county, proceeds along the pariſh of Aberfoyle in Perthſhire, ſpreading itſelf abroad ſo as to form two lakes, called *Loch Conar* and *Loch Ard*; each of which is between two and three miles in length, but of a diſproportionate breadth. In the Highlands of Scotland, the lakes of freſh water are uſually nothing more than long valleys between the chains of mountain, in which the river at the foot of the mountain, not finding a ready paſſage for its waters, ſpreads itſelf out ſo as to aſſume a ſtagnating form: hence the lakes are uſually of great length, but of moderate breadth.

The next chain of lakes, to the northward of the upper part of the Forth, has of late years become extremely celebrated. They are three in number: the uppermoſt is called *Loch Catharine*; its waters proceeding eaſtward, at ſome diſtance, ſpread-

ſpreading out, from *Loch Achrie*, below which is *Loch Venachar* or *Van-choir*; the waters of the whole uniting at the village of Callander with a ſtream from the north, conſtitute the river *Teath*, which flows into the Forth. The rugged tract along theſe lakes is called the Troſſachs: they are ſituated about 10 miles weſt of Callander, and acceſſible by a carriage-road, going by the ſouth limb of Ben Ledi, on the right is the foreſt of Glen Finglas, on the left Ben Venu, which was once a foreſt of the family of Monteath. Ben Venu is called the *Small Mountain* becauſe it is leſs than Ben Ledi or Ben Lomond, from which it is almoſt equally diſtant, forming nearly a ſtraight line with both.

The northern branch of the Teath forms three lakes, *Loch Doine*, *Loch Voil*, and one half of *Loch Lubnaig*. In this river, particularly about Callander, are conſiderable quantities of muſcles, which ſome years ago afforded great profit to thoſe who fiſhed them, by the pearls they contained, which ſold at high prices. This lucrative fiſhery was, however, ſoon exhauſted; and it will probably require a conſiderable time before it can be reſumed with profit, becauſe none but old ſhells, which are crooked like a creſcent, and which have undergone certain changes, produce pearls of any value.

The next river to the eaſtward, that flows into the Forth, is the river or water of *Allan*. The other ſtream of importance, connected with this county, that terminates in the Forth is the river *Devon* or *Dovan*; it riſes in the Ochils, and paſſing by Dollar, Tillicoultry, and Alva, empties itſelf into the Forth nearly oppoſite to its ſource, and only about ſix miles diſtant from it. It runs a courſe, including its windings, of about 40 miles. This river is remarkable for ſeveral curioſities, which are frequently viſited by travellers, called the Devil's or Deil's Mill, the Rumbling Bridge, and the Caldron Linn. The place called the Devil's Mill is about a mile below the church of Foſſaway; it receives the name of mill from the noiſe of falling water which reſembles the ſound of a mill at work, and as this ſuppoſed labour is not intermitted on the Sabbath day, the patronage of ſuch a profane eſtabliſhment is naturally aſſigned to the devil. About 350 yards below the Devil's Mill ſtands the Rumbling Bridge. The rocks on each ſide ſtand ſo near that an arch of 22 feet ſpan is ſufficient to form a communication between the different banks of the river; but the depth from the bridge to the water is no leſs than 86 feet; and the want of a parapet prevents even the ſteadieſt head from looking down this frightful chaſm without a degree of terror. The water, both above and below the bridge, ruſhing from rock to rock, and forming a number of little

little falls, produces a conſtant rumbling noiſe, which is much increaſed when the water is ſwollen by rains. On this account the people call it the Rumbling Bridge. At both ends of the bridge, and at various parts on the face of the rocks, are trees and buſhes, where daws and hawks have their neſts, and from which they are ſeen often flying forth. The whole furniſhes a moſt romantic ſcene.

A mile farther down the river is the Caldron Linn. There are two falls of water; the uppermoſt fall is 34 feet in height, but is not perpendicular. The two falls are diſtant from each other 28 yards. In the ſpace between the two falls are three round cavities which the water has formed in the rock, which have the appearance of large caldrons or boiling veſſels, from which the name is derived. In the firſt there is the perpetual agitation of boiling water, the ſecond is always covered with foam, and the third is conſtantly calm and placid.

To the northward are the waters of Perthſhire, which flow into the Tay. The firſt of theſe is the *Earn*, which has its ſource at no great diſtance northward from Balquhidder. It riſes out of a lake called *Loch Earn*, in the neighbourhood of the mountain of Benvoirlich, that is, the mountain of the great lake. The Earn has ſeveral bridges; but the moſt diſtinguiſhed are the bridge near Crieff, and that at the village called the Bridge of Earn. In its courſe it receives a variety of ſtreams; ſuch as the *Ruchil*, and the *May*.

Perthſhire is alſo watered by the rivers *Almond* or *Amon*, and *Tay*. The lake called *Loch Dochart* contains a floating iſlet; a curioſity which is always recommended to the notice of ſtrangers. This iſlet is 51 feet long and 29 broad. It appears to have been formed by the gradual intertexture of the roots and ſtems of ſome water plants. It moves before the wind, and may be puſhed along with poles. Cattle going unſuſpectingly to feed upon it are liable to be carried a voyage round the lake. Iſſuing from Loch Dochart, the river retains that name, and gives the appellation of Glen Dochart to the vale through which it now runs. At the eaſtern extremity of this valley the water is again detained in its courſe, and forms one of the moſt beautiful of the Scottiſh lakes, called *Loch Tay*. Before entering Loch Tay, however, the ſtream called the Dochart had been augmented by the waters of *Lochay*, a river which deſcends from the north-weſt. Loch Tay, from the village of Killin, at its upper or weſtern extremity, to the village of Kenmore, at its eaſtern termination, is about 15 miles in length; its breadth is only from one to two miles. Its depth is very various, being from 15 to 100 fathoms. The banks of this lake are beautiful, popu-

lous, and fertile. Its winding ſhores are adorned with woods, and diverſified by the appearances of the various mountains. Its waters have at times ſuffered violent and unaccountable agitations, for which no adequate cauſe can be aſſigned. On a ſmall iſland covered with trees, near the foot of the loch, ſtand the ruins of the priory that was founded by Alexander the Firſt of Scotland. Loch Tay abounds with ſalmon, pike, perch, eels, char, and trout. The river iſſuing from Loch Tay at the village of Kenmore, aſſumes the name of its parent lake, which name it retains till it mingles with the waters of the ocean. After leaving the lake, it ſpeedily receives a great augmentation by the waters of the *Lyon*, and ſubſequently from thoſe of the *Tummel*. This laſt river riſes on the confines of Argyleſhire; at firſt it receives the appellation of the *Gawer*, which flowing eaſtward, forms a lake called *Loch Rannoch*, of about 12 miles in length, and from one to two in breadth. This lake receives from its northern ſide the waters of Ericht, which deſcend from *Loch Ericht*, a lake of which only a part is within this county. At the eaſtern or lower termination of Loch Rannoch, the river aſſumes the appellation of the Tummel; it afterwards forms a lake of no great extent, called *Loch Tummel*. The whole courſe of the Tummel is rapid and furious, forming every where the moſt romantic and picturesque caſcades. One of its falls near its junction with the Garry is particularly grand. The rivers *Garry*, *Bruar*, and *Tilt*, unite their waters near Blair, which being in the territory of Athol is called Blair in Athol. About eight miles above Dunkeld the Tay receives the Tummel, and becomes a river of uncommon ſize and beauty. One of the objects moſt generally viſited is the fall of the river *Bran*. This is a rapid ſtream, which deſcends from Glenqueich and the country around Amulrie, upon the ſouth-weſt, towards Dunkeld on the north-eaſt. Beyond the village of Inver on the bank of this ſtream, is an ornamented path of near a mile, which terminates in a building reſembling a temple, and called Oſſian's Hall; in its neighbourhood is Oſſian's Cave, partly natural, partly artificial.

After iſſuing from Dunkeld, the Tay traverſes the low country, a broad and deep river, and after receiving the waters of the Iſla, bends its courſe ſouth-weſt to Perth. The *Iſla* has its ſource in the Grampian mountains. The *Ericht*, which falls into the Iſla from its weſtern ſide, is formed by the junction of the *Eardle*, and the *Shee* or *Blackwater*. The *Dean* flows from the lakes of Forfar in Angus, and loſes itſelf in the Iſla, half a mile north-north-weſt of the town of Meigle. The Tay having received the Iſla, including all theſe ſtreams, from

from the eaſt, and afterwards the Almond from the weſt, proceeds by Perth between the hill of Kinnoul on the eaſt, and of Moncrieff on the weſt, in a ſouth-eaſt direction, till it meets the Earn; after which it proceeds eaſtward, forming the eſtuary or frith of Tay. After receiving the waters of the Earn, the eſtuary ſpeedily expands to the breadth of three miles, but it contracts as it approaches Dundee, below which it pours its waters into the German ocean.

With regard to its agriculture, this county muſt be conſidered, for the ſake of perſpicuity, as conſiſting of three diviſions. 1ſt, the Carſe of Gowrie, which extends from eaſt to weſt 16 miles along the northern ſhore of the Frith of Tay. It is a long narrow plain, bounded on the north by an aſcent which terminates in the Sidlaw hills, which here form the ſouthern boundary of Strathmore. The level territory of the Carſe amounts in extent to about 18,000 acres, in general of an extremely rich and fertile clay ſoil. 2d, a diviſion of much greater extent, including the whole remainder of the Lowland diſtrict, including the part of Strathmore which is in this county, together with thoſe parts of the county whoſe ſtreams flow into the Earn or into the Forth, but excluding the Highland diſtricts included within the range of the Grampians. This diſtrict contains a variety of ſoils, ſome parts reſembling the Carſe of Gowrie, others conſiderably leſs productive, while a conſiderable portion is occupied by moſſes and woods. 3d, the third diſtrict is that included within, or rather formed by the Grampian mountains, where the ſoil is various, but there are no large areas of culturable land.

The mineral productions of Perthſhire are coal; but in ſmall quantity, and at Culroſs only; lime, but the want of coal reſtricts its uſe; ſlate, principally of the ſpecies called grey ſlates; alſo plum-pudding-ſtone and various other uſeful ſtones.

The royal boroughs in this county are two, Perth and Culroſs.

The town of *Perth* is one of the handſomeſt of Scotland, and built upon a much more regular plan than any of them, with the exception of the new town of Edinburgh. It ſtands on a fine plain on the weſt ſide of the Tay, which is here a fine river. Three extenſive tracts of very fertile country may be conſidered as having their termination at this ſpot. Theſe are the Carſe of Gowrie, Strathearn, and Strathmore. The town itſelf is ſurrounded by, or rather divides, a ſpacious plain, into what are called the north and ſouth inches; each of which meaſures about a mile and a half in circumference. They are called inches, or iſlands, becauſe they have the Tay

on the eaſt, and on the other ſides the branches of a canal which comes from the Almond, and which brings down a large proportion of that ſmall river to Perth. Over the Tay is thrown a handſome bridge, conſiſting of ten arches, the whole length of which is 906 feet nine inches; its breadth 22 feet within the parapets. Of the ancient importance of Perth, while it was a royal reſidence, few veſtiges exiſt. The parliament-houſe ſtill remains, and is converted, as well as it poſſibly could, into dwelling-houſes. There remain likewiſe the ancient houſes of many of the nobility, which are now alſo modernized. The church in which John Knox preached at Perth is ſtill ſtanding, divided into three, named the eaſt, the middle, and the weſt kirks.

The ſalmon fiſhery on the Tay is very extenſive. In the ſpring, and part of the ſummer, fiſh go freſh, packed in ice, to the London market. The ſtaple manufacture of Perth is linen, but a conſiderable quantity of cotton goods has been manufactured, which laſt branch is daily increaſing. Leather is alſo manufactured, together with boots and ſhoes, and gloves in large quantities.

The grammar-ſchool of Perth has at all times been extremely reſpectable. The academy too has long been well known. It is an excellent inſtitution for young men intended for buſineſs. It was ſet on foot in 1761. A literary and antiquarian ſociety was founded at Perth, December 16, 1784. A conſiderable collection has been made of books, original eſſays, ancient manuſcripts, coins, medals, ſubjects of natural hiſtory, and other materials ſuitable to the deſign of the inſtitution; but the ſociety has not yet publiſhed any volumes of its tranſactions. There is alſo a general library well furniſhed with books, chiefly hiſtory. This town has 1,402 houſes, and 14,878 inhabitants.

Culroſs is ſituated on the Frith of Forth, from which it ſtands on an abrupt aſcent. One ſtreet runs from the ſea northward; the remaining ſtreets run along the ſhore at right angles with this. Hence, in the approach from the harbour, the town has a very pictureſque appearance. Almoſt every houſe has a garden attached to it containing fruit trees. The town, in conjunction with Stirling, Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, and South Queensferry, ſends a repreſentative to parliament. Culroſs is remarkable for the ruins of a Ciſtertian abbey, founded in 1217 by Malcolm, Earl of Fife. It was placed on an elevation commanding a beautiful and extenſive view of the Forth and the coaſt on both ſides. Conſiderable remains of the monaſtery are yet extant. The abbey church ſtood on the north ſide of it, and had a tower in the middle, which was in 1789 ſtill entire, as was alſo the weſt part of the

church, now uſed as the parochial kirk. The cloiſter is ſtill diſcernible, and is now uſed by the miniſter as a garden. On the eaſt and weſt ſides are ſeveral remains of the offices of the houſe, particularly on the weſt ſide, where there was a building, from its ſize ſuppoſed to have been the refectory. Weſt of this was the abbot's houſe. The town has 280 houſes, and 1,502 inhabitants.

Scone, or *Scoon*, deſerves notice, not on account of its extent or population (for it is a mere village, with 334 houſes and 1,678 people), but for its palace, and as being anciently the reſidence of the Scottiſh kings, the place of their coronation, and the ſcene of many ſplendid actions. Here formerly ſtood an abbey, which was founded by Alexander the Firſt in 1114, and dedicated to the Holy Trinity and St. Michael the Archangel. It is ſaid to have been originally a ſeat of the Culdees, and was afterwards filled with canons of St. Auguſtine. At the Reformation, a mob from Dundee and Perth, rendered furious by the preaching of Knox, and impelled by private reſentment, as well as the hope of plunder, deſtroyed both this ancient abbey and palace, which were very extenſive. The abbey wall, as appears from the foundations which have been dug up, incloſed at leaſt twelve acres of ground. Long before the foundation of this abbey, Scone appears to have been a place of note. Some writers call it the ancient capital of the Picts; but it was certainly the chief ſeat of the kings of Scotland as early as the time of Kenneth. In the church of this abbey was preſerved the famous ſtone which was ſaid to have firſt ſerved Jacob as a pillow, and was afterward tranſported into Spain, where it was uſed as a ſeat of juſtice by Gothalus, a cotemporary with Moſes. It afterwards found its way to Dunſtaffnage, and continued there as the coronation chair, till the reign of Kenneth the Second, who removed it to Scone; and on it every Scottiſh king was crowned till the year 1296, when Edward the Firſt took it to England, and it continues one of the appendages of royalty in Weſtminſter Abbey. Edward removed the ſtone for the purpoſe of defeating an ancient prophecy, expreſſed in the following monkiſh lines:

Ni fallat fatum, *Scoti* quocunque locatum
Invenient lapidem, regnare tenentur ibidem.

Unleſs old prophecies and words are vain,
Where'er this ſtone is found the Scots ſhall reign.

The prediction was conſidered as verified when King James the Sixth aſcended the Engliſh throne. A large houſe, which has uſually received the appellation of the palace of Scone,

was begun to be built here by the Earl of Gowrie, and was completed by Sir David Murray of Goſpatrick, a favourite of King James the Sixth, to whom that monarch, after the forfeiture of Gowrie, had granted it; and the new owner, in gratitude to his benefactor, put up the king's arms in ſeveral parts of the houſe.

Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed remains of antiquity in this county are the hollow tower of Dunkeld, which is a ſtately hollow pillar without a ſtair-caſe, with only one door or entrance facing the north, the height of which is eight feet and a half, the breadth from jamb to jamb two feet and a half. Toward the top are four windows, equidiſtant, five feet nine inches in height, two feet two inches in breadth, and each ſupported by two ſmall pillars. At the bottom are two rows of ſtones projecting from beneath, which ſerved for the baſis of a pedeſtal. The whole height of the pillar is 75 feet, and it conſiſts of 64 rows or regular courſes of hewn ſtone; the external circumference at the baſe is 48 feet, but diminiſhes ſomewhat toward the top; and the thickneſs of the wall is three feet and a half. This is called the round ſteeple of Abernethy, and ſuppoſed to be the only remains of a Pictiſh work in theſe parts. The other antiquities are Dunkeld abbey, of which the greater part is deſtroyed, and ſome portion of what remains is modernized; Donne caſtle, in the neighbourhood of the village of that name, a huge ſquare building, the walls being 40 feet high and about ten thick. Tradition reports it to have been built by Murdoch, Duke of Albany. There are alſo ſeveral veſtiges of the Romans, as roads and camps; and of the temples of Druids.

Perthſhire has 22,932 houſes, and 111,488 inhabitants.

Renfrewshire.

This ſmall county is ſtyled by way of eminence the Barony, becauſe it was the ancient patrimony of the Stewarts. It is bounded on the ſouth-weſt by the hills which run along the north-eaſtern or northern part of Ayrſhire; toward the weſt, the north, and partly toward the north-eaſt, by the river Clyde, or the territory nearly adjoining to it; and on the eaſt by Lanarkſhire, without any particular natural line of ſeparation. Its ſurface is agreeably varied with hill and dale; the ſoil is fertile, producing rye, barley, oats, beans, peas, flax, and ſome wheat, with good paſture. The waters are of no great magnitude, but they are rendered uſeful by the enterprize and induſtry of the inhabitants.

The

The principal ſtreams are the White-cart, the Black-cart, and the Greif, all which unite and fall into the Clyde, below Inchinnan bridge. The locks are of ſmall ſize, compared with others in Scotland; but they are of importance, and all protected and augmented as reſervoirs of water, for giving motion to machinery.

The chief mineral productions are, Oſmund ſtone, a very uſeful material for paving ovens; coal, of which there is a very remarkable field at Quarreltown; and lime.

In this county there is only one royal borough, that of *Renfrew*, which is alſo the head town of the county. It was made a royal borough by Robert Bruce, who granted it a charter. Together with Glaſgow, Dumbarton, and Rutherglen, it elects a member to ſerve in parliament. During the ſeventeenth century, the town of Renfrew ſtood immediately upon the banks of the river Clyde, and veſſels of conſiderable burthen were built cloſe to the town; the river afterward deſerting its ancient courſe, Renfrew became an inland town: but a channel has been made on the old bed of the river to preſerve a communication by water with the Clyde. The town itſelf is about half a mile in length, but has little trade or manufactures. It has 428 houſes, and 2,031 people.

The next town to be noticed is *Greenock*. After the river Clyde has turned from a north-weſt to a weſterly direction, and ſwells out into a broad eſtuary or frith, the ſouthern coaſt is indented by ſeveral convenient bays. The chief of theſe is the united bay of Greenock and Crawford's Dike, which ſtretches along the Frith about four miles and a half. It was formerly called the *Bay of St. Lawrence*, from a chapel near it dedicated to that ſaint. Greenock ſtands upon the ſhore of this bay, on a piece of level territory. The adjoining land is hilly, and from the diſtance of two miles, the town is overlooked by a chain of hills that is nearly 800 feet above the level of the ſea. What is called the *town* of Greenock is a borough of barony, erected in 1757. There are two pariſh churches, a chapel of eaſe, and a chapel in which the ſervice is performed in the Gælic tongue, for the benefit of the great numbers of Highlanders who reſide here: beſide theſe, there are ſeveral diſſenting meetings. There is a harbour and an increaſing commerce. The houſes are 1,038, the inhabitants 17,458.

Further up the Frith of Clyde, at the diſtance of about three miles, is the town of *Port Glaſgow*, or New Port Glaſgow, or Newark. One part of the town ſtands upon the piece of ground which was obtained in feu from the magiſtrates of Glaſgow; and to which, from its deſtination, they

gave an appropriate name; whereas the name of Newark belongs to the remainder of the town or the original village, which has now been conſiderably enlarged. The town ſtands on a flat and narrow piece of coaſt, which is nearly a dead level, and little higher than the high-water mark. Immediately behind, the hills riſe to a conſiderable height. The river Clyde here is about two miles broad. The navigable part of it, called the Channel, lies along the New Port Glaſgow ſhore, and is about 200 yards broad. New Port Glaſgow has in no degree been able to keep pace with Greenock, and is not more than a fifth or a ſixth of it in magnitude. The kind of trade carried on is ſimilar to that of Greenock. It has 439 houſes, and 3,865 people.

The moſt important town in this county, and one of the moſt conſiderable manufacturing towns in Scotland, is *Paiſley*. It ſtands upon the banks of the river Cart, at the diſtance of ſix miles and a half weſtward from Glaſgow. The old town is on the weſtern ſide of the Cart, on elevated ground, which has a view upwards to Glaſgow. The new town is on the eaſtern ſide of the Cart, and is regularly laid out; but the ſtreets are not placed at right angles to each other. Paiſley has three bridges, at convenient diſtances, over the Cart. Its ſtreets are well paved; it occupies a large extent of ground, and contains many excellent buildings, the reſidence of its opulent manufacturers. It was erected into a borough of barony by James IV., in 1448. The town is divided into three pariſhes, and alſo contains ſome diſſenting congregations. An hoſpital was erected here in 1752, for the ſupport of aged perſons and children of the poor connected with the town. The greateſt inconvenience attending this, as well as ſome other towns and villages on the lower part of the Clyde, is the want of an abundant ſupply of good water. The manufactures of Paiſley, the chief part of which have always been connected with the loom, form the principal object of curioſity in the hiſtory of this town. At firſt Paiſley was celebrated for coarſe chequered linen cloth, afterwards chequered linen handkerchiefs; ſome of them fine and beautifully variegated. Theſe were ſucceeded by fabrics of a lighter and a more fanciful kind, conſiſting not only of plain lawns, but likewiſe thoſe that were ſtriped or chequered with cotton; and others that were ornamented with a great variety of figures; ſome of which laſt articles ſtill continue to be manufactured here; to theſe have been added fine thread, ſilk gauze, in imitation of the fabric of Spitalfields; and ſince the improvements in the manufacture of cotton introduced by Arkwright, all the waters in the neighbourhood of Paiſley have been applied to ſpinning mills, and

and all the villages in the neighbourhood and in Ayrſhire filled with perſons employed in weaving cotton goods. The ruins of the abbey of Paiſley form a remarkably fine ſpecimen of antique grandeur in deſolation. In Paiſley are 2,479 houſes, and 31,179 inhabitants.

The population of the whole ſhire is 78,066; and their houſes are 7,946.

Ross-shire.

The county of Roſs is one of the moſt extenſive in Scotland, being eighty miles in length, and nearly the ſame in breadth. It extends acroſs the iſland from the German ocean to the Atlantic, and contains, according to Templeman, 2775 ſquare miles, or 1,776,000 acres, being larger than any county in England, Yorkſhire excepted. It alſo contains the iſland of Lewis, one of the Hebrides. Roſs is bounded by the county of Sutherland on the north, by the ocean and the ſmall county of Cromarty on the eaſt, by Inverneſsſhire on the ſouth, and by the ocean on the weſt. It comprehends the diſtricts of Gairloch, Kintail, Glenſheil, Loch Alſh, Loch Carion, Glenelchaig, &c. Its form is very irregular, being much indented by numerous lochs and friths.

The waters are too numerous to be all mentioned. Among the moſt conſiderable are, the *Friths* of *Dornoch*, *Cromarty*, and *Beaulie*, which advance into the county from the caſt coaſt. The weſt coaſt is very deeply indented with bays or arms of the ſea, here called lochs, which advance to a great diſtance inland, amidſt a country aſtoniſhingly wild and mountainous. One of the chief of theſe is *Loch Broom*. It conſiſts of a ſort of double bay. The firſt, or neareſt the ſea, is called *Loch Chore*, which terminates in a narrow ſtrait; after which the ſea again widens, forming Loch Broom, and extending to a great diſtance inland. As Loch Broom is one of the greateſt retreats of the ſhoal of herrings, the banks of it have been made the ſeats of ſome fiſhing ſtations, eſtabliſhed by the Britiſh Society; particularly Ulla Pool. There are two other fiſhing ſtations in the ſame bay; one at Iſle Martin, five miles north of Ulla Pool, and another at Iſle Tanera, a mile north of Iſle Martin. Beſide theſe two ſtations, the coaſt is indented with numerous ſafe bays. A ſmall ſtream riſes in the mountains, on the borders of Sutherlandſhire, and gives name to the ſtation of Ulla Pool. To the ſouthward of Loch Broom is another extenſive bay, called *Little Loch Broom*, which is long and narrow, but not of ſuch extent as the former. To the

the ſouthward of Loch Broom is a freſh water lake of great extent, *Loch Mari*, in the pariſh of Gairloch. It is about ſixteen miles in length, and of various breadth, generally about one or two miles. It contains twenty-four ſmall iſlands, beautified with fir trees, and a variety of other kinds of wood. On the largeſt iſland, called Iſlan Mari, are the remains of an ancient Druidical edifice, and around it a burial-place, where the inhabitants on the north ſide of the loch inter their dead. It diſcharges itſelf into an arm of the ſea called Loch Ew. *Gairloch*, in the ſame neighbourhood, has been for many ages famous for the cod and herring fiſhing. To the ſouthward, the diſtrict of Kintail is peninſulated by the narrow arms of the ſea called *Loch Gairon* on the north, and *Loch Duich* and *Loch Long* on the ſouth. Theſe, like moſt of the other ſalt-water lochs or arms of the ſea on the weſt coaſt, afford excellent fiſhing ſtations, and a ſafe retreat for ſhips. Beſide the lochs which are connected with the ſea, and Loch Mari, already mentioned, there are to be met with, in the vallies among the mountains of Roſs-ſhire, conſiderable numbers of lakes of one, two, or three miles in length, ſome of which afford beautiful ſcenery.

It would be vain to attempt to ſpecify the remarkable mountains, or even chains of mountains, in a country that is all mountainous, excepting the narrow tract on the eaſt coaſt and the friths, which there advance from the German ocean. *Tulloch Ard*, however, a lofty mountain, in the diſtrict of Kintail, claims particular attention, on account of its importance in ancient times. Like the temple of Janus, it indicated peace or war; for, when war commenced, a barrel of burning tar on the higheſt peak was the ſignal, and in twenty-four hours all the tenants and vaſſals of Seaforth appeared at the caſtle of St. Donan, armed *pro aris et focis*. This mountain is the creſt of Lord Seaforth's arms. *Ben-Uaiſh*, in the pariſh of Kiltearn, on the eaſt coaſt, towers above the reſt of the mountains. It is ſeen acroſs the Moray Frith, in the counties of Moray and Elgin, or of Bamff. It is perpetually covered with ſnow; and the reddendo or quit rent, from the family of Foulis, for the tenure of the foreſt of Uaiſh, is the payment of a ſnow-ball to his majeſty, on any day of the year, if required; and it is ſaid that a quantity of ſnow was ſent to the Duke of Cumberland, when at Inverneſs, in the ſummer of 1746, to cool his wine.

The minerals hitherto diſcovered in this county are chiefly freeſtone and limeſtone of different ſorts; ſome of them of the nature of marble. Marl is alſo found, and iron-ſtone abounds. A tradition exiſts, that it was ſmelted in a former age on the banks

banks of the arm of the ſea, called Loch Eu. In the northern diſtrict of the pariſh of Applecroſs is a copper mine. In the pariſh of Kincardine, on the farm of Dibſdale, ſtands one of the higheſt mountains, called Carn-chuinaig, on which ſtones have been found perfectly ſimilar to thoſe known by the name of cairngorms. Knockirny abounds with marble, white and party coloured. In the pariſh of Alneſs, a very rich ore of iron, which ſeemed to be of conſiderable extent, has been diſcovered. A vein of lead, rich in ſilver, has alſo been found in the ſame neighbourhood. In the pariſh of Kiltearn, in a rock on the banks of Aultnacaorach, *i. e.* the ſheep burn, (a rivulet that falls into Aultgrande,) there are indications of lead ore. There are alſo ſeveral mineral ſprings.

Roſs has three royal boroughs, Tain, Dingwall, and Fortroſe.

The principal of theſe is *Tain*, a market town, ſtanding on the bay or frith of the ſame name. The trade of Tain is principally in its home markets, and annual fairs, as its bay is ſhallow and unſafe, except for fiſhing-boats or ſmall craft. It has 514 houſes, and 2,277 people.

Dingwall is a ſmall town, conſiſting of a ſingle ſtreet, ſituated on a branch of the Cromartie frith. The ſurrounding country is tolerably fertile, but the town enjoys little or no trade. It has 1,418 inhabitants, and 288 houſes.

Fortroſe, ſituate on Moray frith, comprizes two towns or villages, Roſemarkie and Canonry, united by a royal charter. It has the remains of a cathedral.

Roſs contains 52,291 inhabitants; the number of houſes is 11,134.

Roxburghshire.

The appellation of this ſhire is obviouſly derived from the deſignation of the town, which, as it owed its exiſtence to the *Burgh* upon a rocky peninſular, alſo owed to it the name of Roxburgh. Roxburghſhire is the moſt ſouthern county of North Britain, it extends from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt 38 miles; and from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt 27. The breadth, indeed, about the middle of it, is carried out to a larger extent, by a projection of the ſhire northward of the Tweed, between the ſtreams of the Gala and the Leader. This county contains a ſuperficies of 696 ſquare miles, or 445,440 ſtatute acres. The population being 33,682, allows 4,839 perſons to a ſquare mile. This county is divided by its waters into ſeveral diſtricts. Teviotdale, which forms the great body of its ample extent, comprehends the diſtrict which is drained by

by the Teviot and its ſubſervient ſtreams. Liddeſdale, which forms the ſouth-weſt corner of Roxburghſhire, on the borders of Northumberland and of Cumberland, comprehends the Alpine country which is drained by the Lid, the Hermitage, and other ſtreams, which all ſend their kindred waters to the Solway Frith. The third diviſion of Roxburghſhire is that projection which extends northward of the Tweed, between the Gala and the Leader; and the fourth, or lower diviſion, is that which, lying northward of the Tweed, is included in the Merſe.

The ſouthern parts of Roxburghſhire are very mountainous. A remarkable range of hills runs quite acroſs the country, from eaſt to weſt; beginning with Whitelaw and Chillhill, on the northern declivity of the Cheviot mountains; and ending with Craikmuir on the ſource of Borthwick water, and even proceeding weſtward into Ayrſhire. From thoſe remarkable hills flow many ſtreams into Teviotdale on the north, and into Northumberland, Liddeſdale, Ewiſdale, and Eſkdale, on the ſouth. Liddeſdale is an Alpine region, which is, however, dry, and affords excellent paſturage. Several of its hills are conſpicuous objects from afar. The interior of Teviotdale abounds more with fertile vallies than with great heights; yet, has it ſeveral hills in various places of its ample range, which attract notice either from their natural appearances, or incite curioſity by their memorable antiquities. Hounam-law emulates the Cheviot heights; and is the parent of the Kail, and Bowmont waters. Dunian hill rears its conical ſummit 1,031 feet above the ſea level. Rubers-law riſes to the height of 1,419 feet above the ſame plain. Boncheſter hill, though not ſo high, deſerves more notice on account of the Britiſh ſtrength on its ſummit, from which it derived its name. Burgh hill, in Cavers pariſh, though not remarkable for its height, merits notice from its ancient fort, which defended its creſt, and gave it an appellation. In the ſame pariſh, Pen-creſt-pen and Shelfhill-pen; and in Crailing pariſh, Penielheugh, are memorable for preſerving, through ſucceſſions of people, their Britiſh names. On the north of the Teviot the eminences which attract the greateſt obſervation are the Minto-craigs, which riſe to the height of 858 feet above the ſea level; and which being formed of rocks, and interſperſed with planting, are pictureſque objects and real ornaments to Teviot's vale. In the northern part of Teviotdale the only eminences which merit particular notice, are the Eldon hills, which are diſtinguiſhed in that ſomewhat level region by their ſingular appearance, and by the Britiſh and Roman ſtrengths that were formed on their acclivities. In

that

that diviſion of Roxburghſhire, which projects northward of the Tweed, the only hill which riſes to a great height is William-law on the Gala water; and it commands an extenſive proſpect, and has on its ſummit a collection of ſtones that are called Bell's Cairn. The hills of this county are happily both ornamental and uſeful; they add much to the ſuperficies of the ſhire, while they contribute much to its landſcape, and ſtill more to its paſturage: very few of them are bleak, and ſcarcely any of them rugged.

The lakes of this ſhire are few and ſmall, yet it is well watered by a variety of ſtreams which are at once ornamental and advantageous. The *Tweed*'s "fair flood" enters at the influx of the Etterick; and winding through this variegated country for a courſe of thirty miles, it leaves Roxburghſhire at the confluence of the Carham burn, having received in its "gently gliding flow," the Gala, the Allan, the Teviot, and the Eden. The Teviot riſes in the Fan hill, one of the eminences which ſeparate Roxburghſhire from Dumfries-ſhire, and being ſwelled by ſeveral ſubſervient ſtreams, it meanders through its own *dale* for almoſt forty miles, when it falls into the Tweed. Beſides the rivulets which ruſh down from their ſprings in their ſeveral mounts, and join the Teviot near its ſources, this ample river receives the Borthwick and the *Ale* from the heights on its northern ſide, and the Allan, the Slitrig, the Rule, the Jed, the Oxnam, and the Kail, with their tributary ſtreamlets, all ſpringing from the kindred hills of the Cheviot range. The *Teviot* obtained its Britiſh name, like its kindred *Teivie* in Wales, from its quality of flooding its fertile haughs. The Ale riſes from Ale Moor, in Selkirkſhire, and courſing through Roxburghſhire for twenty miles, mingles with the Teviot below Ancrum. The Borthwick water, which derived its modern name from a place on its borders, riſes in Craikmuir on the ſouth-eaſt extremity of Selkirkſhire; and flowing through a paſtoral country, cloſes its courſe of thirteen miles by mingling with the Teviot, below the "braes of Branxholm." The Kail riſes from the northern declivity of the ſame Cheviot mountains, which ſend the Northumbrian Cocket to the ſouthward; and quitting the hilly regions, the Kail meanders through a ſpacious plain till it mixes with the Teviot below Eckford mill, after a courſe of 18 miles through many clumps of full grown trees: the Kail derived its ancient name from the woody coverts which embelliſhed its banks; *Cell* and *Celli* in the Britiſh, ſignifying a grove, and *Coille* in the Gaelic, a wood. Oxnam water alſo deſcends from thoſe border mountains; and paſſing Oxnam, whence it borrowed its recent name, it purſues its winding courſe

courſe of twelve miles, till it mingles its congenerous waters below Crailing with the Teviot, the common receptacle of a million of rills. The "ſilvan Jed" riſes from ſeveral ſources in the declivity of the Carter-fell, one of the border hills, which alſo ſend from their ſouthern declivity, through Northumberland, the North Tyne and the Reed; ruſhing through a rocky channel and woody vales, it winds round the Shire-town to which it gave the name of Jedworth, which corruption has converted into Jedburgh; and after a rapid courſe of almoſt twenty miles, pours its duſky waters into the Teviot below Bonjedworth. The *Rule* riſes from three ſources in the northern declivities of Winburgh hill, Fanna hill, and Needlaw, the ſame range that ſends the Lidel ſouthward to the Solway: the Rule rolls its rapid waters between well wooded banks; and after a meandering courſe of twelve miles, it mingles its congenerous ſtream with the Teviot below Spital; the Rule is merely the Britiſh *Rhull*, which means what moves briſkly, what breaks out; a term very deſcriptive of this mountain torrent. This water may vie with the ſilvan Jed in the variety and value of its woods, but not in its picturesque ſcenery. The *Slitrig*, riſing from ſeveral ſprings in the Leap hill, the Maiden paps, and Great-moor-hill, flows through hollow vales and green hills, during a rapid courſe of ten miles, till it falls into the Teviot below Hawick, driving many mills for that induſtrious town. *Allan* water iſſues from two ſprings in the northern declivity of the ſame ridge, which ſends the Hermitage water to the ſouth; and, after a ſhort courſe through wealthy ſheep-walks, pours its fair ſtream into the congenerous Teviot at Newmill. There is another *Allan* in the northern part of this ſhire, which mixes its waters with the Tweed above Melros. The *Bowmont*, which may have derived its modern name from its remarkable curvature round ſome of the mounts of Cheviot, drains the pariſhes of Morbotle and Yetholm; and joins its rapid waters with the Northumbrian *Till*. Such are the ſtreams which drain the ſeveral diſtricts of Teviotdale, and contribute to the elegance of its landſcape, as well as to the fertility of its plains. Lidiſdale is emptied of its waters by the Liddal, the Hermitage, and other currents which pour from the circumjacent heights. The *Liddal* was "unknown in ſong, though there be not a purer ſtream," till Armſtrong "firſt drew air on its Arcadian banks." It riſes near the ſources of the Tine, from the ſouthern declivities of Fanna hill, Note of the Gate, and Needlaw, the ſame border mountains which ſend the Rule and the Jed from their nothern declivities into Teviotdale.

The

The Liddal rolls its rapid maze over a ſtony channel toward the weſtern main. Liddiſdale, the modern name of this diſtrict, is a corruption of the pleonaſtic name of Liddalſdale. The *Hermitage*, which borrows its modern name from Hermitage caſtle that ſtands on its woody banks, joins the Liddal at Weſtburnflat; the united ſtream now tumbles through a more extended valley till it quits Roxburghſhire, at the influx of the Mareburn, after a rapid courſe of twenty miles. The Kerſhope, the Tweeden, the Tinnis, the Blackburn, and ſome ſmaller ſtreams, all contribute to drain the paſtoral diſtrict of Liddiſdale, and all flow into the Liddal. Of theſe mountain torrents, the *Kerſhope* is only famed for being a long conteſted boundary of England and Scotland, throughout its whole courſe of eight miles. The *Tweeden* is only remarkable for its water falls; but the *Blackburn* exhibits cataracts of the greateſt variety and grandeur; one of thoſe falls being thirty-eight feet of perpendicular height and twenty feet wide. The romantic vale of the Blackburn ſhows nature in her moſt diverſified forms; ſometimes beautiful, often awful, frequently ſublime, and not unfrequently terrible; yet the greateſt curioſity of the Blackburn is a natural bridge which, as it ſtretches acroſs the ſtream five and fifty feet, joins the oppoſite hills together. Of the two diviſions of Roxburghſhire which run out on the northern ſide of the Tweed, the upper diſtrict is watered by the Allan in the centre; and by the Gala and the Leader on either ſide. The *Allan* takes its riſe on the north extremity of this ſhire, near the farm of Allan Shaws; and running in a courſe of eight miles through a paſtoral country which was once a foreſt, pours its clear waters into the congenial Tweed. The *Gala*, after leaving the ſouthern limits of Edinburghſhire, runs a ſomewhat winding courſe for ſix miles between the northern diviſion of Roxburghſhire on the eaſt, and Selkirkſhire on the weſt. The *Leader*, which falls down from the weſtern end of the Lamermoor, and which Camden calls the riveret *Lauder*, flows through Lauderdale for ſix miles, when it falls into the Tweed below Drygrange. The *Leader-haughs* are greatly celebrated in Scottiſh lyricks, and were indeed famous in feudal times for breeding the ſtateſieſt ſteeds; the Leader-haughs alſo were once dignified by the reſidence, at Ercildon, of Thomas the Rymer, the earlieſt of the Scottiſh poets. The lower diviſion of northern Roxburghſhire is alſo watered by the *Eden*, which flows gently along through the Merſe for nine miles, when it enters the Tweed. Near Newtondon, the Eden, tumbling over a rock from the height of forty feet, forms a cataract of very diverſified beauties, both agreeable and ſplendid.

For

For ſo mountainous a diſtrict, Roxburghſhire produces few minerals. It is almoſt deſtitute of pit-coal, being chiefly indebted to the neighbouring countries of Northumberland and Mid-Lothian, for the coal which it uſes for fuel; and the ſouth-weſt parts of this county receive ſome ſupplies of coal from Dumfries-ſhire. Limeſtone exiſts abundantly in various diſtricts of this ſhire; but it is not generally manufactured, from the ſcarcity of proper fuel. New quarries of limeſtone are however diſcovered, and additional manufactories of it are eſtabliſhed, in proportion to the demand for ſo valuable an object of daily life. Marl of every kind is found in various parts of this ſhire, is much uſed in its agriculture, and has contributed greatly to its fertility. Freeſtone every where abounds in this ſhire, except in the north-weſt, and the ſouth-eaſtern diſtricts. Liddiſdale has freeſtone of an excellent quality every where except near the ſource of Hermitage water, where there is only blue whinſtone. The hills on the ſouth of Teviotdale are chiefly compoſed of whinſtone which are generally of the ſort that contains numerous nodules and veins of agate, jaſper and Scottiſh pebbles; and theſe are often found intermixed with the ſoil, and diſcovered in beds of rivers. Hardly a molehill is caſt up in the neighbourhood of the Cheviot mountains which does not contain ſome of thoſe pebbles, that are moſtly of an amber colour with bluiſh veins and ſtreaks of deep red. At Roberts-linn in Hobkirk pariſh, there are large rocks which are full of thoſe pebbles, that are manufactured into ſeals, and formed into buttons of various kinds. Theſe pebbles are ſent to Sheffield and Birmingham for the purpoſes of diverſified manufacture. Iron ſtones are mixed with the ſoil in ſeveral parts of this ſhire. The red clay ſoil of the northern diſtrict of Teviotdale contains a proportion of iron from two to ſix per cent. There are petrifying ſprings in various parts of this ſhire, and ſeveral chalybeate and ſulphurine ſprings, which however are not very remarkable for their medical powers.

The only royal borough in the county is *Jedburgh*. This was originally a village, founded on the Jed by Biſhop Egered, in the middle of the ninth century. It afterwards grew into a burgh and had a caſtle, but was for many ages expoſed to all the changes and calamities of border conflicts and internal feuds. The caſtle having been ſome time in the hands of the Engliſh, was taken by the men of Teviotdale and razed to the ground in 1409. Jedburgh probably became the ſhire town after the fall of Roxburgh, under the influence of the Douglaſes. While both remained in the allegiance of England, Hawick was the ſeat of the ſheriff. When the firſt charter

was

was conferred on Jedburgh is uncertain; as its ancient muniments were deſtroyed in times when deſtruction was the great object of hoſtility. The abbey was once a ſplendid edifice; its ruins are ſtill magnificent; they ſerve as a pariſh-church.

In Roxburghſhire are alſo the market towns of Kelſo, Melros, Hawick and Yetholm.

When the monaſtery was removed to *Kelſo* from Selkirk, David I. conferred on the monks this village with its lands and waters, free from all exaction. In May 1138, was founded the church, the ſame year wherein the church of Holyrood was built. The town of Kelſo ſhared the fate of the abbey, during the hoſtile conflicts between the kindred nations in being often plundered and ſometimes fired. David II. erected the town of Kelſo, the barony of Bolden, and other lands of the monks, into a *free regality*. This was converted, in 1607, into a lordſhip in favour of Robert Kerr Earl of Roxburgh.

Old *Melros* may be traced back to an early age of Saxon times. When David re-eſtabliſhed the monaſtery at Melros in 1136, he granted to the monks the villages and lands of Melros. The eſtabliſhment of the monaſtery gave riſe to a town, whereof the abbot was the ſuperior; the town ſhared in the fortunes of the monaſtery; and regality came by a grant from the crown to Sir Thomas Hope, who preferred, however, the title of Hadington. The remains of the abbey ſtill engage attention.

Hawick is a baronial town which belongs to the Duke of Buccleugh, who was compenſated for its regality in 1748. During the thraldom of Roxburgh it was the ſhire town. As a border town it was often involved in ruin, during ages of hoſtility. In peaceful times it flouriſhes under its beneficent lord.

Yetholm is alſo a privileged town, with its weekly market on Wedneſday, and its annual fairs, which collect the neighbouring people for mutual traffic, and where tinkers and gypſies abound, from the vicinity of the Cheviot hills.

Among the antiquities of this county, the moſt conſpicuous is a ſtupendous work of the Britons, who once were the hardy tenants of Roxburghſhire, called the *Catrail* or *Pictsworkditch*. This is probably the vaſt remain of the Romanized Britons, the children of the *Gadeni* and *Ottadini* of former times, who enjoyed this country after the abdication of the Roman power. It ſeems to have been conſtructed as a line of defence againſt the invading Saxons on the eaſt, during the fifth century. After traverſing Selkirkſhire, the *Catrail* enters Roxburghſhire, where it croſſes the Borthwick water near Broadlee; here its

remains are very viſible; and it continues to be equally diſtinct till it reaches Slatehill moſs; whence it runs in a ſouth-eaſt direction acroſs the Teviot, through the farm of Northhouſe to Dogcleugh hill, where it appears very obvious to every eye. From this poſition it proceeds ſouth-eaſt in a flanting direction acroſs Allan water to Dod; paſſing in its courſe two hill forts on the left. From Dod, the Catrail courſes eaſtward, near another Britiſh fort on Whitehill brae, and it now aſcends the Carriage hill, whereon it appears very prominent to the eye and very inſtructive to the intellect. From this height it deſcends acroſs Longſide burn, where it becomes the known boundary of ſeveral eſtates. From this burn it traverſes the northern baſe of the *Maidenpaps* to the Leapſteel; and thence holding its forward courſe by Robertslin and Cockſpart, it croſſes the dividing hills into Liddiſdale; and again appears on the Dawſtane burn, where the Scotiſh Aidan was defeated in 603, by the Saxon powers. Its veſtiges may thence be traced nearly to the Peel-fell on the confines of Liddiſdale, where this diſtrict bounds with Northumberland. From its remains the Catrail appears to have been a vaſt foſſe at leaſt twenty-ſix feet broad; having a rampart on either ſide of it from eight to ten feet high, which was formed of the matter that was thrown from the ditch. The whole courſe of the Catrail, from the vicinity of Galaſhiels in Selkirkſhire, to Peel-fell on the borders of Northumberland, is upwards of forty-five miles, whereof eighteen of its courſe are within Roxburghſhire. *Catrail* means, in the language of the conſtructors of it, the *dividing fence* or the *partition of defence*.

The name of *Roxburgh* can now only be claſſed among the antiquities of the ſhire; although it was once the principal town, the capital of the kingdom during the reign of David I., and the county town till it was ruined by the ſad hoſtilities of the ſucceſſion war. It was a place of coinage during the reign of King William. There was a coinage in the town of Roxburgh by James II., during the ſiege, perhaps, in 1460. Old Roxburgh town had an ancient ſeal, which has been engraved by the Antiquary Society of London. Roxburgh had a bridge, which connected the town with the oppoſite ſide of the Tweed. It was often deſtroyed during the inveterate hoſtilities of former ages; was ſometimes repaired, and was afterwards ſo completely deſtroyed, that not a veſtige of it can now be traced. At length the ſite both of the caſtle and the town, with other rights, were granted by James IV. to Walter Kerr of Ceſtford, a powerful baron on the borders.

Among

Among the eminent men born in this county may be named the poets Gavin Douglas, Thomſon, and Armſtrong, and General Elliott, whoſe glorious defence of Gibraltar procured him the title of Lord Heathfield and an honourable addition to his paternal arms.

The county of Roxburgh contains 33,682 inhabitants. The houſes are 6,397.

Jedburgh has 676 houſes, and 3,834 inhabitants.

Kelſo 527 houſes, and 4,196 inhabitants.

SELKIRKSHIRE.

As Roxburghſhire derived its appellation from its caſtle, Selkirkſhire obtained its name from its church; the town having borrowed a diſtinguiſhed deſignation from the ancient Kirk, and the Sheriffwic its name from the town. Yet the area of this ſhire had a very different appellation, in ſtill more early times. As the Tweed ſupplied a name to the vale through which it took its higheſt courſe; ſo the Etterick lent its Celtic appellation to the well wooded country through which it flowed. The Scoto-Saxon kings, finding ſport throughout Etterick woodlands, very early eſtabliſhed a hunting ſeat at Selkirk, which gave riſe to the town; and in the ſame age, formed their hunting grounds into a foreſt; and the principal river, which watered and adorned thoſe extenſive woodlands, naturally gave its name to the country; hence, from the epoch of record to recent times, this country has been called in charters, *Etterick-foreſt*, and *The Foreſt*, from its pre-eminence for its *vert* and *venery*.

The country, which has thus been variouſly known through many an age, as Selkirkſhire or Etterick foreſt, is twenty-ſeven miles long, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and ſixteen miles broad, excluſive of a ſmall detached part on the eaſt. It contains a ſuperficies of 257 ſquare miles.

With the exception of a very narrow portion, on its eaſtern ſide, Selkirkſhire may be ſaid to be a continued alternation of hill and dale. Many of the eminences riſe to conſiderable heights. The hills are in general clothed in green, though ſome parts of them are diſcoloured by ruſſet. The center of the county, on the ſouth of the Forth, does not riſe to ſo great an elevation, as the baſe of the heights, on the north of that river. The valleys on the Etterick, the Yarrow, and on the upper ſtreams of the Tweed, which may be deemed the center of ſouthern Scotland, are not much more than five hundred feet above the level of the ſea; while the level of the vale of

Badenoch, on the Spey, is at leaſt a thouſand feet above the ſea level. The numerous valleys that ſeparate the heights of this ſhire, are generally confined to a narrow ſpace, by the acclivities on either ſide. Even the vales of the larger rivers, the Etterick, the Yarrow, the Tweed, and the Gala, ſeldom expand themſelves to any great width, owing to the approximation of the mounts. From thoſe vales however ſhoot out many *cleughs* and *hopes*, that run up a conſiderable diſtance between the heights; and each of thoſe vales ſends out its appropriate ſtreamlet, which augments the rivers with its congenial waters.

Of lakes, Selkirkſhire, though an interior and mountainous region, cannot boaſt. The only conſiderable collection of water is *St. Mary's loch* on the weſtern extremity of this ſhire, which derived its name from a church, that was early dedicated to the Virgin, on its north-weſtern margin. This lake is about three miles long, and about half a mile broad. It receives into its boſom the Yarrow and Megget waters, with ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams; and its outlet is the Yarrow, which adds ſo much to the beauty and convenience of this ſhire. Immediately above St. Mary's lake, the loch of the *Lows* forms a much ſmaller baſon on the Yarrow. There are here two lochs, which are only ſeparated by a narrow and level neck of a hundred yards in length, that furniſhes a channel for the Yarrow, from the loch above, to St. Mary's loch below. The loch of the Lows breeds chiefly perch and pike, which delight in ſuch waters. Theſe then are the lakes on the weſtern extremity of this ſhire: on the ſouth-eaſt of it there are only a few ſmall lochs; ſuch as *Alemoor loch*, *Kingsmoor loch*, *Crooked loch*, *Shaws lochs*, *Oakermoor loch*, the overflowing of which collections is diſcharged by the upper drains of the Ale and Clayburn loch, that is emptied by Rankleburn, a feeder of the Etterick. The ſize of theſe lochs varies, from a mile and a half to a mile in circumference.

A country, conſiſting of green hills and "buſhy dells," lying under a moiſt climate, muſt abound in rills and riverets; but the Etterick and the Yarrow are the principal drains of Selkirkſhire. The *Etterick* riſes among the mountains in the ſouth-weſt extremity of the ſhire, at a place called from its ſource Etterick head. Among a thouſand ſtreamlets, which find oblivion in the Etterick, the moſt conſiderable are the *Rankleburn* and the *Tema-water*. After a courſe of five and twenty miles, the Etterick is joined by its rival Yarrow above Selkirk town; and the united ſtream falls into the Tweed three miles below.

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The *Yarrow* riſes in thoſe heights where the ſhires of Selkirk, Dunfries, and Peeblis meet. After traverſing the loch of the Lows and St. Mary's loch, the Yarrow puſhes forward with rapid violence, collecting in its devious courſe the Douglas burn, with other mountain ſtreams, till it joins the Etterick above Selkirk town. Its whole courſe of one and twenty miles is on a rocky and gravelly bottom; and it is the rougheſt and moſt precipitous river in this country. It was from this prominent quality that it obtained from the Britiſh people its remarkable name: *Garw* in their language, *Garow* in the Corniſh, and *Garbh*, which in the Gælic has the ſame pronunciation, ſignify what is rough, or a torrent. The *Gala*, which is much leſs rapid than the Etterick and the Yarrow, as it deſcends through a flatter country, runs the greater part of its courſe over a gravelly bed. The ſtreams of the *Ale* and *Borthwick*, have both their ſources in the ſouth-eaſtern diſtrict of Selkirkſhire; yet, they ſoon quit its confined limits, and paſſing into Teviotdale, mingle their congenial waters with the Teviot. The only other ſtream which merits notice in this ſhire is the *Cadon Water*, which riſes in the mountains on the northern extremity, and haſtens its courſe to the Tweed in a rapid flow of nine miles.

Of minerals, none of the more uſeful have yet been found in this paſtoral ſhire. There are not any metals, coal, lime, nor freeſtone in any part of this county; it has, however, abundance of whin-ſtone, and a good deal of granite. The want of coal is ſupplied, in ſome meaſure by many moſſes, from which peats are dug, that are the chief fuel of the inhabitants. The higher ranks of people, however, and the farmers, burn coals, which are brought from the Lothians, a diſtance of more than thirty miles from the centre of this county. Though this ſhire does not enjoy the benefit of limeſtone it poſſeſſes excellent marl, ſeveral moſſes, and Daker-moor loch, cover large beds of excellent ſhell marl.

Selkirk, the capital, is a ſmall town pleaſantly ſituated on a riſing ground, enjoying an extenſive proſpect, eſpecially up the courſe of the Etterick. It has 404 houſes, and 2,098 people.

The whole county contains 5,070 inhabitants, and 1,013 houſes.

STIRLINGSHIRE.

THE county of Stirling, (anciently called *Stryveling*, or *Strïveling*,) is bounded on the north by Perthſhire, on the eaſt by Linglithgowſhire, on the ſouth by the counties of Lanark

and Dunbarton; which laſt alſo bounds it on the weſt. The greateſt length from eaſt to weſt is about forty-nine miles, and the greateſt breadth from ſouth to north twenty-three; but the medium length may be forty-four, and breadth ſixteen miles. According to this calculation, it contains 704 ſquare miles, being 450,560 acres Engliſh, or 358,336 Scottiſh acres. The pariſh of Alva is not included in this deſcription, becauſe, although it belongs to Stirlingſhire, it is entirely ſeparated from it, and ſurrounded on all ſides by the ſmall county of Clackmannan.

The mountains of this county are either thoſe in the neighbourhood of Loch Lomond, of which Ben Lomond is the chief, or thoſe which traverſe the ſouthern part of the county, through the pariſhes of Kilpatrick, Baldernock, Campſie, Kilſyth, and Denny. The northern ranges of theſe laſt are denominated the Lennox hills. The more ſouthern branches receive their denomination from the pariſhes through which they paſs, and are called Camſie fells, Kilſyth or Kilpatrick hills, &c.

Of the rivers in this county the *Forth* is the chief, and indeed though not the largeſt, it has always been accounted the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Scottiſh rivers. The *Carron* riſes in the centre of the county, and running eaſtward enters the frith of Forth, about three miles from Falkirk. In its whole length it is, as its name denotes, a winding ſtream, and "the "bonny links of Carron water" are deſervedly celebrated. *Bannockurn* is more celebrated in hiſtory than important as a river, being only a ſmall ſtream or burn, as its name implies. There are alſo ſtreams called the *Avon*, the *Eurick*, the *Blane*, and the *Kelvin*, with ſome burns of ſmaller extent. The county contains no lakes of importance, unleſs *Loch Lomond* be conſidered as partially belonging to it. In the pariſh of Buchannan, near Loch Lomond, are three ſmall lakes, *Dulochan*, Loch *Arclet*, and Loch *Amnancairn*. In the pariſh of Kilſyth, the great reſervoir for the canal between Forth and Clyde, though formed artificially, may well be conſidered as holding the place of a lake. It is perhaps one of the largeſt and moſt beautiful artificial ſheets of water in the kingdom. It is of an oval form, full three-quarters of a mile long, ſomewhat leſs than half-a-mile in breadth, and covers upward of ſeventy acres.

The north-weſtern part of this county toward Loch Lomond is deſtitute of valuable minerals. The vicinity of the Grampians appears to cut off all the ſecondary ſtrata, particularly of coal, which abound in the hills of the ſouth, and are more of a ſecondary magnitude. The principal mountain, Ben Lomond, is chiefly compoſed of granite, interſperſed with great

quantities of quartz. This laſt mineral is found near the top in immenſe maſſes, ſome of which muſt weigh ſeveral tons. Theſe appear like patches of ſnow upon the mountain, even when ſeen from Luſs. Conſiderable quantities of micaceous ſchiſtus are found even at the top; and many rocks, toward the baſe of the mountain, are entirely compoſed of this mineral. The ſhores of Loch Lomond are covered with rounded pebbles, compoſed chiefly of quartz, granite, and micaceous ſchiſtus, with ſome coarſe red jaſper, agreeable to the compoſition of the adjacent mountains, from which they have been waſhed by rivulets, and poliſhed by the waves of the lakes. In the north-weſtern part of the county, upon the Eurick and the upper part of the Forth, toward the centre of the county, peat is the ordinary fuel. In different parts of the hills running from Dunbarton to Stirling, ſtupendous piles of baſaltic rocks are found. In the pariſh of Fintry is a grand colonnade of baſaltic pillars, which riſe in a hill called *Dun* or *Down*, at the end of the hill of Fintry. The range conſiſts of ſeventy columns in front, which are of a gigantic ſtature; ſome of theſe ſeparating in looſe blocks, others apparently without joint from top to bottom. They ſtand perpendicular to the horizon, and riſe to the height of fifty feet. Some of them are ſquare, others pentagonal and hexagonal. In the pariſh of Campſie is abundance of coal and lime. The high ridge, however, called the Campſie Fells, contains no coal; though in what are called the ſecondary hills, this mineral is very abundant. The lofty ridge immediately after the coal terminates is perceived, from the bed of the torrents, to be compoſed in the following manner: At the baſe of the hill where the coal ceaſes are ſeveral layers of that ſort of lime mixed with clay called here *camſtone*, which is eaſily burned into a heavy lime, but muſt be ſlacked while hot. Immediately above the camſtone are found at leaſt a dozen ſtrata of iron-ſtone of excellent quality; the layers are of different degrees of thickneſs, with a ſoft ſlate intervening. Theſe different ſtrata or ſeams occupy about 200 feet of the height of the mountain. Continuing to aſcend, the ſummit of the mountain is compoſed of fifteen layers of rock, called here *moorſtone*. In the inferior hills, about the Glaſſart, is a large field of coal on both ſides of the ſtream, at the depth on the north ſide of from ſeven to fifteen fathoms, and on the ſouth, of nearly twenty-two fathoms. The coal is at an average from forty-two inches to four feet in thickneſs; it is covered by a bed of ſlate, above which is uniformly a limeſtone rock of four feet in thickneſs, and over that again ſlate of ſeven or eight feet in thickneſs. Below the coal is a whiter ſort of lime thought

inferior to that above. The coal here is ſaid to be full of irregularities, called by the workmen coups, hitches, and dikes. The ſurface of the country is extremely irregular; and the minerals below ground appear to follow the rapid irregularities which occur upon the ſurface. The neighbouring pariſh of Baldernock, upon the Kelvin, contains likewiſe abundance of coal and limeſtone. In the pariſh of Kilſyth, iron-ſtone, limeſtone and freeſtone abound, and the coal, which has been wrought for ages, is deemed inexhauſtible.

In the ſouth-eaſtern part of the county coal alſo abounds; and there, in the pariſh of Larbert, are ſituated the celebrated Carron works, on the northern bank of the river of that name. The company has a charter for employing a capital of 150,000l. divided into 600 ſhares, and every holder of ten ſhares has a vote in the management. The Carron iron-works were firſt projected and eſtabliſhed by Dr. Roebuck and Meſſrs. Cadell and Garbet. They draw their materials, not only from the immediate neighbourhood, but from a conſiderable diſtance inland or along the Forth. They have five blaſt furnaces for the manufacture of caſt iron from the ore, or iron-ſtone. They have alſo a great variety of furnaces without an artificial blaſt, in which caſt iron is melted, as at ordinary foundaries, for the manufacture of different ſorts of goods. They likewiſe convert caſt or pig iron into malleable iron. The pig iron is melted in a finery where coke is uſed; while hot it is beaten out into plates about an inch in thickneſs. Theſe plates are afterwards broken into pieces about two inches ſquare, for the convenience of ſcouring them, &c.; and they are then ſcoured in an iron cylinder which is connected with the water wheel; and when they are properly prepared by this operation, they are put into pots, which are made of fire clay, and in an air furnace, they are brought into a welding heat. In this ſtate of preparation they are put under the hammer, and wrought into blooms; the blooms are heated in a chaffery or hollow fire, and then drawn into bars for various uſes. The machinery is moved by the water of the river Carron; and for a ſupply in the time of drought, they have a reſervoir of about thirty acres. But as this precaution is not enough in very dry ſeaſons, they have moreover an engine for throwing back the water that it may be uſed again; and this engine raiſes four tons every ſtroke, and makes about ſeven ſtrokes in a minute. Counting the people directly employed in the manufacture at Carron, thoſe engaged in the mines and pits, and thoſe who carry materials to the works and goods by ſea, and otherwiſe immediately from them, the whole number may be eſtimated at two thouſand.

Stirling is the capital of this county. When viewed from a diſtance, it bears a great reſemblance to the old town of Edinburgh, or what now conſtitutes the central ridge of that city. Stirling ſtands upon a hill which riſes toward the weſt; the weſtern extremity, as in Edinburgh, is a precipitous rock, upon which ſtands the caſtle, and the principal ſtreet of the town proceeds along the ridge eaſtward; but the declivity is leſs gradual, and ſooner comes to a termination than in Edinburgh. The principal and moſt conſpicuous object in this town undoubtedly is its caſtle. None can tell the date at which either the town or the caſtle was built; but in all ages Stirling and Stirling caſtle have been of the utmoſt importance in the hiſtory of Scotland: and from its caſtle-hill may be ſeen, at different diſtances, the ſcenes of the moſt ſanguinary conteſts which have occurred in the Scottiſh hiſtory. The Grey-friars or Franciſcan church of Stirling, built by King James the fifth in 1494, is a very handſome building, in the beſt ſtyle of what is called Gothic architecture. It is all of hewn ſtone, with an arched roof ſupported by two rows of pillars. It was originally one church, but ſince the reformation, has been divided by a partition wall, and at preſent makes two large and convenient places of worſhip, called the eaſt and weſt churches. To the north-eaſt of Stirling is a ſmall village, called the *Abbey*, upon the north bank of the Forth, on the ſpot where the celebrated abbey of Cambuſkenneth once ſtood. In ancient times its abbots were frequently denominated Abbots of Stirling. It was founded by David the firſt, in the year 1147, and filled with canons regular of the order of Saint Auguſtine, brought from Aroiſe, near Arras in France. There are ſeveral wealthy hoſpitals in Stirling, beſides other extenſive funds, for the relief of the poor, ariſing either from the funds of incorporations, voluntary ſubſcriptions, or the collection at the church doors; the conſequence of which is that the poor have multiplied greatly. It has even been ſaid, that every twelfth perſon in Sterling receives charity; yet the managers of the poor's funds are believed to have at all times exerted a greater degree of circumſpection and attention to that duty than is uſual in moſt other places. The moſt ancient hoſpital is that endowed by Robert Spittal, tailor to King James the fifth. Another hoſpital was founded by John Allan, writer in Stirling, in 1725. Beſide theſe charitable foundations, the merchant company have funds from which they defray the expence of educating and putting into buſineſs the children of poor guild brethren. The kirk ſeſſion alſo expends conſiderable ſums annually from the funds peculiarly entruſted to them.

The kirk ſeſſions of the burgher ſeceders are equally liberal. The town's funds, and thoſe of each particular incorporation, are alſo, in part, expended in a ſimilar manner; and after all, it is found neceſſary to have recourſe to large voluntary ſubſcriptions, to enable the magiſtrates to protect the town againſt the nuiſance of begging poor.

Stirling has long been celebrated for its grammar ſchool, which has ſent into the world a number of celebrated men; and this place can boaſt of giving birth to ſome who have made a conſiderable figure in the literary world. Among theſe may be mentioned Dr. Robert Pollock, who was the firſt principal of the univerſity of Edinburgh, and a very celebrated writer of his age; Dr. Henry, author of the Hiſtory of Britain; and Dr. Moore, well known as the author of Zeluco and ſeveral other excellent works. The number of people in this town is 5,256, of houſes 620.

The next place of importance in this county is the village of *Falkirk*. It is ſituated on an eminence above the Carſe, with a declivity on every ſide. It is chiefly remarkable on account of its great fairs. The greateſt market for cattle in the iſland is held at Falkirk, three times a year, in Auguſt, September, and October. They are commonly called the *Trysts* of Falkirk, and have been frequented for upward of a century and a half. The place contains 8,838 people.

There are alſo many populous villages in this county, chiefly in the eaſtern part of it, as St. Ninian's, Upper and Lower Bannockburn, Balfron, Carron Shore, Camelon, Airth, Bainſford, &c. Falkirk and Kilſyth are, however, the only market-towns; although this laſt, conſidered as a village, is of no great importance. Campſie and Fintry are villages ſituated to the ſouth, or in the centre of the county, conſidered as extending from the eaſtern to the weſtern ſea.

Stirlingſhire has many memorials of antiquity, natural and artificial. The caves of Craigroſtan have occaſionally afforded ſhelter to heroes in adverſity; one of them, called King Robert's Cave, was a retreat for Robert Bruce, after his defeat at Dalſie. They were alſo the faſtneſſes of the celebrated freebooter called Rob Roy M'Gregor, the Robinhood of Scotland. The followers of this man and their ſucceſſors, in defiance of the prohibition of law, continued to levy the tribute called Black-mail, until the middle of the eighteenth century.

Among many other objects of curious antiquity are ſome cairns near Balderloch; the remains of the Roman wall, and Emanuel nunnery on the weſt bank of the Avon; nor can the names of Falkirk, Bannockburn, and Kilſyth be ſeen among

among the places in this county without bringing to memory the exploits of Wallace, Bruce, and Montroſe.

This county gave birth to the great hiſtorian and poet, George Buchanan, and was the reſidence of the celebrated John Napier, the inventor of logarithms.

In Stirlingſhire are 7,822 houſes, and 50,825 inhabitants.

SUTHERLANDSHIRE.

THIS is one of the moſt northern, and largeſt counties of Scotland, containing about 2,310 ſquare miles, or 1,478,400 Engliſh acres; yet in conſequence of the vaſt extent of its mountainous diſtricts, its value is far from being conſiderable. It extends acroſs the iſland from ſea to ſea; it is about eighty miles in length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and forty miles in breadth; bounded on the north-eaſt by Caithneſs; on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by the German ocean and the frith of Dornoch; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Roſsſhire; on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean; and on the north by the Great North ſea. In the language of the country, it comprehends the diſtricts of Strathnaver on the north-eaſt, Aſint on the ſouth-weſt, and Sutherland properly ſo called. Strathnaver was formerly a county of itſelf. It is in general hilly, in ſome parts ſo lofty, particularly in the diſtrict called Strathnaver, that the ſnow remains on the higheſt ſummit the whole year. The lower parts however of theſe heights, the leſs elevated eminences, and ſome of the vallies, afford a fine paſture, which maintains great numbers of black cattle and ſheep; and a few diſtricts are arable, producing ſome corn. It is ſaid that even ſaffron has in ſome places been brought to perfection. The weſtern and ſome of the eaſtern parts, bordering on the ſea, are expoſed to heavy ſtorms and drift-ſand, which has frequently injured the land. The air is more temperate than might be expected in ſo high a northern latitude. A conſiderable portion of the ſhire is overſpread with foreſts or chaſes, which are the haunts of great numbers of red deer and much game. The lochs, rivers, and ſtreams are well ſtocked with fiſh, and frequented by wild fowl. The northern and ſouthern ſides are broken by ſeveral deep inlets, and along the ſhores are ſeveral ſmall iſlands. The whole coaſt teems with fiſh.

On the northern ſide of the county, the firſt ſtream is that called *Holladale*, which forms a part of the boundary with Caithneſs. Next to the weſtward is the ſtream called *Navet* or *Navern*. It riſes out of a lake of the ſame name in the pariſh of Far.

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The lake is no leſs than ſix miles in length, and three in breadth. Next to the weſtward, on the northern coaſt, is the river called *Torryſdale*. It ariſes out of the *Loch Loyal*, or *Laoghall*, in the pariſh of Tongue. Tongue bay, to the weſtward, is a long arm of the ſea, ſkirted on each ſide with corn fields, incloſed paſtures, and farm houſes. It advances five miles into the land. To the weſtward the coaſt is high and rocky, and interſected by ſeveral ſmall creeks; in one of which (Port Voiſgaig) there is a quarry of grey ſlate, and another of excellent flags, both eaſily wrought, which are conveyed by boats to different parts of the country. The rocks along the coaſt are hollowed into caves, or formed into arches or pillars; ſome of them ſo regular that they ſeem to be the work of art. *Uaidhe Mhor Fhraiſgill*, the great cave of Fraiſgill, extends more than half a mile under ground. It is about fifty feet high, and twenty feet wide at the entrance, and grows narrow by degrees, till at laſt a man can ſcarcely creep in it. Its ſides are variegated with a thouſand colours, which are loſt in each other with a delicacy and ſoftneſs that no art can imitate. Upon entering the cave, the mind is impreſſed with a pleaſing ſort of awe, which is heightened by the ſolemn gloomineſs of the light, the clang of the ſea birds that neſtle in it, and the mournful daſhing of the waves againſt the adjacent rocks.

Between the bay of Tongue and the next bay to the weſtward, which is called Loch Erriboll, there is a large tract of low marſhy territory. The bay of Durneſs to the weſtward, along with loch Erriboll, inſulate a conſiderable territory. Cape Wrath is to the weſtward of theſe. The ſhores are almoſt every where rocky, barren, and even deſtitute of vegetables. After paſſing Cape Wrath, the weſtern coaſt of the county contains a variety of bays or arms of the ſea, which form excellent harbours, where ſhipping of all ſizes can enter and moor cloſe to the land, at all hours of the day and night, in perfect ſafety. Of theſe harbours are *Loch Badeaut*, erroneouſly marked Badwell in ſome draughts of the coaſt; *Loch Calva*, which ſignifies literally, "Good Harbour;" *Laxford*, having ſeveral good anchorages, of which *Iſland an Erinich*, or, "The Iriſhman's Iſland," is the beſt. *Feanwick Moir*, near the entry, is a very ſafe place. Inchard has alſo a good harbour; and ſo has Kyles-aun, near Stirk's island. Great quantities of fiſh are caught on this coaſt. Every village, and almoſt every houſe has a boat, nets, and all ſorts of fiſhing tackle. In the interior of the country are ſome lakes and waters. The two chief ſtreams are *Irchard* and *Laxford*, in which ſalmon are caught, as well as abundance of trout. The lakes

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are ſtored with a variety of trout of all ſizes. Of theſe *Loch Moir*, at the diſtance of ſeven or eight miles from the ſea, is three miles long by half a mile broad, and never freezes in the ſevereſt ſeaſon. *Loch Stalk* is two miles in length, and half a mile broad. Both theſe lochs are connected by a ſmall ſtream, and out of the laſt mentioned runs the conſiderable river of Laxford. On the coaſt of Aſſint alſo, on the ſame weſtern ſide of the county, are arms of the ſea, into which veſſels can retreat; and among the mountains are ſeveral inland lochs. Of the bays, or ſalt-water lochs, the moſt important are, *Loch Inver*, *Ardvar loch*, *Loch Nedd*, in which and various others herrings are caught in abundance. On the eaſtern coaſt *Helmſdale River* is the moſt northern. Deſcending from very lofty mountains, and having a conſiderable arable territory along its banks, its inundations often produce much miſchief. To the ſouthward is the ſtream called *Brera*, which ariſes from an inland loch of the ſame name. This loch is a beautiful ſheet of water four miles in length, and near one in breadth. It has an iſland in the centre, which has ſome appearance of being artificial. Near the ſouthern boundary of the county is Loch Sheir, which is about twenty miles long, and from one to two broad; the banks, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide, are covered with natural wood. The *Frith of Dornoch*, ſometimes called the *Frith of Tain*, is that arm of the ſea which divides the ſouthern parts of Sutherland from the county of Roſs. The entrance of this frith is nearly fifteen miles wide, and it gradually becomes narrower, till about three miles weſt of the town of Dornoch, its breadth is not above two meaſured miles, where there is a ferry boat, called the *Meikle Ferry*.

Sutherland has abundance of freeſtone, limeſtone, and ſlate. The limeſtone in many places aſſumes the form of marl. Among the mountains on the weſt coaſt the traces of ancient mines, and iron works are ſtill apparent. Rock cryſtals and pebbles are found in many parts; and beautiful garnets are found on the coaſt in the pariſh of Tongue. There are ſeveral veins of coal; but the quality is far from good, and the veins are too ſmall to be of conſequence. Native gold is ſaid to have been found in the *debris*, near the foot of the mountains. There are many veins of lead ore very rich in ſilver, but as yet none have been wrought. Ironſtone is abundant. A rich vein of black oxide of manganeſe has been diſcovered near the frith of Dornoch.

Dornoch, the only town of the ſhire is a ſmall place in decay, ſituated on the Murray Frith. It was once the ſee of a biſhop, and the remains of the cathedral now form the pariſh church. It ſeems to be principally benefited by its four annual

nual fairs which are well attended. It contains 562 houſes, and 2,362 inhabitants.

Over the whole of this country in different places are to be found veſtiges of thoſe ancient buildings, denominated *Pifts houſes*, which on the weſt coaſt are called *Duns*. In various parts alſo are to be ſeen veſtiges of fortifications of different ſorts. Some of them are old towers, and others conſiſt of larger works which ſeem to have been intended as places of ſafety for conſiderable bodies of men or cattle.

The population of this ſhire amounts to 23,119. The number of houſes is 4,324.

WIGTONSHIRE.

THE ſhire of Wigton forms the ſouth weſtern extremity of Scotland. It is bounded on the eaſt by Kirkcudbright and Wigton bay; on the ſouth and weſt by the Iriſh ſea; and on the north by the county of Air. It contains 469 ſquare miles, or 238,721 Scottiſh acres. The county is ſometimes called Upper Galloway or Weſt Galloway. It is divided into two diſtricts, the ſhire and the ſtewartry. The ſhire diſtrict is named the ſhire of Wigtoun from its principal town.

The climate in general is healthy and the ſoil very fruitful in corn and graſs; and though their oats are ſmall and hard, they make excellent meal. In a word, this county produces all the neceſſaries of life; and is remarkable for its excellent wool, and thoſe briſk little horſes called Galloways.

Its waters are the rivers *Or*, *Dee*, *Kem*, *Cree*, *Loſſe*, *Bladenoch*, which riſes from a loch of the ſame name, and *Tarff*. They all abound with ſalmon, and fall into the Iriſh ſea. There are alſo many lakes of freſh water, but none of remarkable ſize, beauty, or importance. Wigton is well wooded, its chief woods are *Kenmure*, *Cree*, and *Garlies*. The ſoil is hilly, and there are ſome very high mountains, particularly Craneſmoor and Crefall, at the mouth of the Nith.

This county contains the Preſbyteries of Kirkcudbright, Wigtoun, and Stranraven, making in all thirty-ſix pariſhes, beſides ſeveral more that belong to the Preſbytery of Dumfries. It has five ſea-ports, Kirkcudbright, a very large, ſafe, and commodious harbour; Gavellan, a very ſecure harbour; and Neſſock, Lochryan, and the bay of Luce.

The principal minerals in this county are lead, ſlate, and marble.

There are three royal boroughs in this county; Stranraer, Wigton,

Wigton, and Whithorn, and ſeveral ſmall villages, ſuch as Newton Douglas, Garleiſton, and Port Partick.

Stranraer is ſituated at the bottom of the deep bay called *Lochryan*; it has no artificial harbour, but ſhips of three hundred tons burden can come to what is called the *road*, about half a mile from the town. The town is divided nearly in the middle by a little rivulet, over which there are ſeveral ſtone bridges. The caſtle now uninhabited is a whinſtone building, with freeſtone corners and windows, of conſiderable height, and ſtill very ſubſtantial.

Wigton, which gives its name to the ſhire, is a village of no great extent, ſituated near the mouth of Bladenoch water. Little buſineſs of any importance is carried on in it, and it contains only ſuch mechanics and tradeſmen as are neceſſary for the ſervice of the neighbourhood.

Whithorn ſtands on the peninſula formed by the bay of Wigton and the bay of Luce, which advance into the country on each ſide of it. The town conſiſts chiefly of one ſtreet, running from north to ſouth, with ſeveral croſs lanes. Near the centre of the town is a hall for public meetings, adorned with a ſpire and turrets; a church was founded here in the fourth century, dedicated to Saint Martin; nothing now remains of it but ruins and four Gothic arches, which make part of the preſent place of worſhip. A priory alſo exiſted here which was well endowed. The ſituation of the town of Portpatrick is well known, being the neareſt point of the iſland of Great Britain to Ireland, and the beſt place for croſſing from the one kingdom to the other, as the paſſage is only twenty miles over. It is called in old charters *Port Montgomery*, from a noble family of that name who once poſſeſſed extenſive eſtates on both ſides of the Iriſh channel; but it would appear that the moſt ancient popular name was *Portpatrick*, which a powerful family in vain attempted to alter. Four packet boats are kept for the purpoſe of forwarding the mail, and to convey travellers from the one iſland to the other. There is a light houſe on the Iriſh coaſt at Donaghadee, to render the paſſage as ſafe as poſſible.

Wigton has 287 houſes, and 1,475 inhabitants.

The ſhire contains 4,792 habitations, and 22,918 perſons.

THE ISLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

ALTHOUGH the ſeveral iſlands which form this portion of territory are, for the convenience of civil government, for the moſt part annexed to or incorporated with adjacent ſhires on the main land, it is conſidered moſt proper to deſcribe them in their natural diviſions. Each cluſter of iſles forms a region, and they are ſeverally denominated, 1ſt, the *Weſtern Iſles*, more generally called the *Hebrides*, and by the earlieſt authors *Ebudæ;* 2d, the *Northern Iſles*, commonly known as the *Orkneys*, and anciently *Orcades;* and 3d, the iſles ſtill further to the north, or rather north-eaſt, called the Iſles of *Shetland.*

The general view of each of theſe territories is taken from Mr. Chalmers's Caledonia; the particular account of each iſle from other writers.

THE HEBRIDES.—The ſtone monuments, which ſtill exhibit in thoſe iſles ſpecimens of the labour and genius of the firſt ages, atteſt the Hebrides to have been planted by the ſame Celtic people who ſettled South and North Britain. The ſame Druid temples, the ſame cairns, the ſame cromlechs, evince that the ſame people erected the ſame monuments, in the ſame age. The maritime people, who engaged in predatory expeditions to theſe iſlands during ſubſequent times, had neither leiſure for ſuch peaceful labours, nor inclination for ſuch laſting memorials.

The Weſtern Iſles were known to the Roman geographers during the firſt century, by the name of the Hæbrides. This appellation, the etymology of which has defied conjecture, has been converted in modern times into *Hebrides*, by the blunder of tranſcription or the error of typography. Theſe iſles were ſeen rather than explored by the Roman fleet, which circumnavigated the Britiſh iſland, A. D. 84, by the command of Agricola; and they afterwards had the honour to be deſcribed by Ptolemy, from the local information of the Roman officers.

During the period of the Roman government in Britain, the Hebrides were governed, like Caledonia, by many petty chieftains, who were connected only by the ſlight ties of a common religion and language, and of ſimilar cuſtoms and habits; but they owed no ſubjection to a ſuperior, and ſcarcely acknowledged the connection ariſing from the ſame language, the ſame religion, and the ſame uſages, which pointed to a common origin without allowing a common government. Yet the deſcendants of the original coloniſts would have been only few at the epoch of the abdication of the Roman government; owing

owing to the barrenneſs of the ſoil, the infelicity of the climate, and the want of commerce. And they became the prey, during ſeveral ages, of every predatory tribe who navigated thoſe ſeas, either in queſt of plunder, or in ſearch of ſettlements.

In giving an account of the ſecond colonization of the Hebrides, which was made from oppoſite ſhores by different lineages of men, it is neceſſary for the purpoſe of diſtinctneſs to conſider thoſe iſles under their natural diviſions in two ſeparate ranges, the *interior* and *exterior* Hebrides.

1. The interior range of the Hebrides ſtretches along the weſtern ſhore of North Britain, from Ilay on the ſouth, to Skye on the north; comprehending the intermediate iſlands of Mull, Jura, Colonſay, Liſmore, Tiree, Coll, Egg, Muck, Canay, Raſay, with a number of adjacent iſlets; and with this diviſion may be claſſed the iſlands of Bute, Arran, and the Cumbrays, within the Frith of Clyde.

2. The exterior range of the Hebrides, which lies much farther out in the weſtern ocean, conſiſts of the Lewis, Harris, North Uiſt, South Uiſt, Barray, Waterſay, and of a number of adjacent iſlets, forming a continued chain from north to ſouth of 140 miles.

During the ſixth, the ſeventh, and the eighth centuries, the *interior* Hebrides were ſettled by Gaelic coloniſts, many of whom migrated directly from Ireland, and ſtill more from the Iriſh ſettlements in Argyle. *Iona*, one of the iſlets of this range, was given to Columba by his relation Conal, the Scottiſh king, as a ſecure retreat, whence he could ſend out his miſſionaries to propagate the Chriſtian faith. The zealous Columbans ſoon eſtabliſhed, in thoſe iſlands, many cells, and in the progreſs of proſelytiſm they extended their miſſions and diffuſed their inſtruction throughout the wide extent of the Hebrides. At the end of the eighth and during the ninth century, the Hebrides were frequently invaded by the Norwegian pirates, who ſometimes fought for a ſettlement, but oftener prowled for prey. The ſame Scandinavian race who ſettled in the Orkney iſlands and on the coaſt of Caithneſs, extended their ſettlements in the ninth century to the exterior Hebrides, where they found but few of the firſt coloniſts to reſiſt their intruſion. A ſubſequent body of their countrymen followed their tracks, and ſucceeded in forming ſettlements on the coaſt of Sutherland and around the ſhores of the interior Hebrides, where they tried to give ſtability to their ſettlements and to overawe the Gaelic inhabitants by building *burgs*, or forts of ſtone. The topography and antiquities of the Hebrides, when judiciouſly inveſtigated, greatly help the ſcanty

notices of hiſtory, in tracing thoſe obſcure events during ſuch barbarous times. The great body of the names of places in the Hebrides is Gaelic, many are Scandinavian, and a number of them are pleonaſtic compounds of both thoſe languages. In the interior range of the Hebrides, the names of places are nearly all Gaelic, there being only a few Scandinavian names around the coaſts of theſe iſlands: this fact ſhews that this diviſion of the Hebrides was colonized wholly by the Iriſh and Scoto-Iriſh, before the Scandinavian rovers broke in upon them, during the ninth century; and it alſo ſhews, that the Scandinavian people only made a few ſettlements upon the ſhores of the interior range. In the exterior Hebrides, the greateſt number of the names of places are Scandinavian, a large proportion of them are Gaelic, and many of them are pleonaſms, which were formed by prefixing Gaelic epithets to the Scandinavian appellations. In this diviſion of the Hebride iſles, the Scandinavian names are not confined to the coaſts, but are ſpread over the interior of each iſland, and are even applied to mountains and to waters. Theſe facts demonſtrate that the Scandinavian ſettlers preceded the Scoto-Iriſh in thoſe diſtant iſlands; and found few of the firſt coloniſts who could hand down their traditions or tranſmit their topography; as the Scandinavian ſettlers new named almoſt all the hills, the waters, and other great features of nature.

The Weſtern Iſlands, during the Scottiſh period, were inhabited partly by a Gaelic people and partly by a Scandinavian race, who yielded a doubtful obedience to the Norwegian kings. At the beginning of the Scoto-Saxon period, while a civil war raged in Scotland, Magnus the Bare-footed came in a powerful fleet among the Hebride iſles, and aſſerted his rights and enforced his authority. Neither Donal-bane nor Edgar, the Scottiſh kings, were able to contend with his irreſiſtible force, had their pretenſions been founded on right, rather than aſſumed by hiſtorians from the ſuggeſtions of fiction. The policy of Alexander III. acquired, by treaty, in 1226, the kingdom of Man, and the iſles of the Hebridian ſeas, which his power could neither have conquered nor retained. The price paid to the King of Norway for this important ceſſion was a preſent ſum of 4000 marks, and a yearly quit-rent of 100 marks for ever. The laws of Scotland were, in future, to prevail within the ceded iſles; but the Scandinavian inhabitants of thoſe regions were allowed freely to retire with their effects. In the fifteenth century, under the vigorous adminiſtration of James I., the lords of the Hebride iſles and the chieftains of the Highlands, who had been completely

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lawleſs under the long regencies of late times, were obliged to ſubmit to regular government.

Theſe iſlands are ſituate between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude; they are very numerous, and ſome of conſiderable ſize. They are annexed to the ſeveral counties of Roſs, Inverneſs, and Argyle, and form the ſhire of Bute.

The following iſlands are annexed to the ſhire of Roſs:

1. *Lewis.*—This iſland is the moſt northern, and one of the largeſt of the Hebrides. It is connected with the iſland of Harris by a narrow iſthmus, which at low water is left entirely dry, and even at high water is not completely covered. Harris belongs to Inverneſs-ſhire. Lewis is in its form irregular, but ſomewhat triangular; the length of the ſides being from the point of Neſs to Maliſta, forty miles; from Maliſta to Wallums twenty-one miles; from Wallums again to the point of Neſs, thirty-ſix miles. The aſpect of the country in this iſland is, in the interior parts, boggy and mountainous; upon the ſhore, flat, interſected by various arms of the ſea, and deſtitute of wood, except only a few birches and hazles, with heath and ſome kindred ſhrubs. The ſoil is, in the interior country, a black peat earth or a light gravel; on the ſhore, a ſand not unſuſceptible of culture and fertilization. Springs, lakes, and rivulets, ſcattered through the iſland, furniſh in all parts abundance of freſh water. Among its wild animals, this iſle ſtill has deer or roes. Prodigious numbers of wild fowl, of many different ſpecies, frequent the ſhores, the lakes, and the cliffs of the mountains; among others the eider gooſe, of which the down is ſo precious. Immenſe ſhoals of fiſhes of an innumerable diverſity of ſpecies haunt the coaſts; herrings, cod, ling, haddocks, whitings, ſkate, turbot, mackerel, &c. The iſland is greatly interſected by arms of the ſea, called lochs, which run to a conſiderable diſtance inland, both from the eaſtern and weſtern ſides. One of the chief of theſe is *Loch Roag*, on the weſt, which is two leagues acroſs at the entry, and runs up in a ſouth-eaſt direction about twelve miles through the iſland. This loch is covered with iſlands, ſeveral of them inhabited; and one of them is about eight miles long: its name is *Large Binera*. The whole of this curious loch abounds with ſafe places of anchorage, ſufficient to hold the whole Britiſh navy. On the eaſt coaſt, *Loch Seaforth* runs into the country to a great diſtance inland from the eaſt; but *Loch Stornaway* is moſt important, on account of the town or village which ſtands upon it, and which is the capital of the iſland. Lewis is divided into four pariſhes; *viz.* Barvas, Lochs, Stornaway, and Uig. It has various ſmall iſlets attached to it.

The inhabitants of the iſland of Lewis are ſcattered for the moſt part in ſingle families or cluſters of two or three families, around the coaſt or through the interior. Some large tracts are without inhabitants, while upon others the population is more cloſely aſſembled.

On the eaſt ſide of the iſle is the town or village of Stornaway, which, from a ſmall origin, has of late, by the exertions of Lord Seaforth, arrived at a conſiderable ſize and extent. The harbour of Stornaway is excellent and well-frequented; and the principal ſource of employment is the proſecution of the white and herring fiſheries in the bays; and here about thirty-five or forty veſſels are annually fitted out. It is a port of the cuſtom-houſe, and has a poſt-office, and a regular packet which ſails every week with the mail and paſſengers. The houſes in the town are generally well-built; and beſides a neat and commodious cuſtom-houſe, there is a town-houſe, an aſſembly room, an elegant church, and two commodious ſchool-houſes. In the bay of Stornaway, ſhips of any burthen have ſufficient water, good ground, and no heavy ſea can ever come into it.

2. *Rona.*—The iſland of Rona is reckoned the fartheſt to the north-weſt of any land in Europe. It is ſituated in the Northern Ocean, about ſixteen leagues diſtant from Coraſſie Point, or the Butt of Lewis. It belongs to the pariſh of Barvas. It is reckoned a mile in length and half a mile in breadth. There is a temple in it dedicated to Saint Rouan. It is rented by one of the Neſs tackſmen at 4*l.* ſterling *per annum*, who regularly every ſeaſon ſends a large open boat and brings from it ſome corn, butter, cheeſe, a few ſheep, and ſometimes a cow, beſides ſome wild fowls and feathers. There were once five families reſiding upon it, but now there is only one, employed by the tackſman as ſervants.

3. *Suliſker.*—The Rock Suliſker lies four leagues to the eaſt of Rona; it is a quarter of a mile in circumference, and abounds with a great variety of ſea-fowl. The boat which goes to Rona generally touches there for fowls and feathers.

4. *Flannan Iſles.*—The Flannan Iſles lie in a north-weſt direction from a promontory called Gallan Head, about twelve or fifteen miles in the ocean. They are not inhabited, and are famous for fattening ſheep, each of which has every ſeaſon two lambs at a time. Sheep brought from theſe iſles do not live for any time on the iſland of Lewis. The people of the farms to which the iſlands are connected, go there once a-year to fleece their ſheep and to kill ſea-fowl, both for food and on account of their feathers. Theſe iſlands are ſeven in number, ſame which Buchanan calls *Inſulæ Sacræ.*

5. *Shaint*

5. *Shaint Iſles.*—In the channel between Lewis and Sky, a third of the way nearer the former than the latter, are three iſlands named Shaint or Holy Iſlands, well known to mariners. One of them, in particular, ſeems to have been dedicated to the Virgin Mary; it is named Moair or Mary's Iſland. In it are the remains of a popiſh chapel. Black cattle are paſtured on them all, and they are famous for fattening ſheep; but particularly ſome ſmall rocks in their neighbourhood, which have graſs on their tops.

The Hebrides belonging to Inverneſs-ſhire are,

1. *St. Kilda.*—St. Kilda, or Hirta, is the moſt remote of the Scottiſh Weſtern Iſles, the neareſt land to it being Harris, from which it is diſtant 60 miles in a weſt-ſouth-weſt direction, and it is about 140 miles from the neareſt point of the main land of Scotland. It is about three miles long from eaſt to weſt, two broad from north to ſouth, and about nine and a half in circumference. The whole iſland is fenced about with one continued perpendicular face of rock of prodigious height, except a part of the bay or landing-place lying toward the ſouth-eaſt, and even there the rocks are of great height, and the narrow paſſage to the top of the rock is ſo ſteep, that a few men with ſtones could prevent any hoſtile multitude from landing on the iſland. The bay is alſo difficult of acceſs, as the tides and waves are ſo impetuous that, unleſs in a calm, it is extremely dangerous of approach. The ſurface of the iſland is rocky, riſing into four high mountains, and covered to the depth of 16 or 18 inches with a blackiſh loam, except on the top of the hills, where is three feet depth of moſs. The ſoil is well adapted for corn, but the natives prefer rearing ſheep and killing wild fowl to the more toilſome buſineſs of huſbandry, and raiſe only a ſmall quantity of corn around the village. The ſoil, though naturally poor, is, however, rendered extremely fertile by the ſingular induſtry of the inhabitants, who manure their fields ſo as to convert them into a ſort of garden. Barley and oats only are ſown; and of the former about fifty bolls are generally brought every year to Harris. The grain is of a very ſuperior quality to that produced in the other weſtern iſles. Potatoes have been lately introduced, and cabbages and other garden plants are only begun to be uſed. There are ſeveral ſprings which form a ſmall burn that runs cloſe by the village. This is ſituated about a quarter of a mile from the bay on the ſouth-eaſt, and all the inhabitants of the iſland live in it.

2. *Harris.*—The Iſland of Harris is a continuation ſouthward of the Iſland of Lewis. Two bays, called Eaſt and Weſt Tarbat, reach almoſt acroſs the territory between Lewis and

Harris, leaving only a trifling iſthmus forming the northern boundary of Harris. The ſea to the ſouth of Harris receives the name of the Sound of Harris. The iſland or peninſula of Harris has ſeveral iſlands attached to it, which may be divided into northern and ſouthern iſles. The mainland of Harris, extending from the ſound on the ſouth to Tarbat on the north, is 15 miles in length. At the ſouthern extremity, its breadth is about ſix miles. It narrows gradually, but irregularly, toward the middle of this region, and from thence widens again toward the ridge of mountains that overhangs Tarbat; where, computing from the headlands on the weſt coaſt to thoſe on the eaſt, the breadth may be about eight miles. The whole of this diſtrict is mountainous and rocky, excepting the weſt coaſt, which is moſtly bordered with a ſtripe of plain ground, and covered with verdure almoſt to the top of the hills. The eaſt coaſt is indented all along with harbours, bays, and creeks, and exhibits to a ſpectator at ſea, the moſt barren aſpect, appearing to be a continued bare rock. Near the ſhore, however, a few green patches are to be ſeen, brought into culture by the laborious induſtry of the inhabitants. Kelp is the ſtaple commodity of Harris, and, excepting the few cows ſold to the drovers, forms the only valuable article of exportation which the country produces. In conſequence of the high prices ſome years ago, and the encouragement held out to convert all the ſea weed into kelp, the manufacture has been carried to great length, to the detriment of the corns and paſtures, which have degenerated much, through want of the manure formerly afforded by the ſhores; all that is uſed for that purpoſe being what is caſt aſhore after the kelp-making ſeaſon is paſt. No tree grows here, though nothing is more certain than that the country was once wooded all over. The gentlemen plant ſome buſhes and ſhrubs in their gardens, which fade as ſoon as they overtop the walls.

The vaſt numbers of freſh-water lakes in this country abound with excellent black trout. Some good ſalmon likewiſe come into the foot of the rivulets, from the ſea, in and before the ſpawning ſeaſon; whales and cearban, or ſail-fiſh, hover along the coaſt in the ſummer months; ſeals, in vaſt abundance, are to be ſeen throughout the year. The ſea fiſh moſt beneficial to the people are, the white herring, dog-fiſh, blind-fiſh, cod, ling, ſkate, mackerel, codling, lythe, ſythe, cuddy, and ſand eel: there are ſome oyſters and other ſhell fiſh. The iſland has a number of chalybeate ſprings, ſome copper and iron ore. The ſtone throughout the country is excellent for building: it is of various kinds: the moſt common is a hard blue whin of a beautiful gloſs. In many places there is the beſt of granite, capable

capable of a poliſh as fine as marble. Neither marble, nor limeſtone, nor freeſtone, has yet been diſcovered.

Iſles belonging to Harris.—The northern iſles inhabited are,

1. *Taranſay*, a high rocky iſland about four miles long and one broad, lying in a weſtern direction from the mouth of Weſt Loch Tarbat.

2. *Scalpay*, a low heath-covered round iſland in the entrance to Eaſt Loch Tarbat. Its land dimenſions are not eaſily aſcertained, its parts being ſcarcely coherent, through a ſingular intervention of water lakes and arms of the ſea jutting in through it in various directions. Its two extreme points from eaſt to weſt may be computed three miles diſtant. On the eaſt point is a light-houſe, built in 1788; and near the weſtern extremity are two of the beſt natural harbours in the Hebrides. Mariners call it the Iſle of Glaſs.

3. *Scarp* is a high round rocky iſland, one compact mountain, of which the diameter at the baſe may be three miles. It is ſituated at the mouth of Loch Reſort, and divided from Huſkeniſh by a ſound ſomewhat leſs than a mile broad at high water.

Of the uninhabited iſlands belonging to this diviſion, ſeveral ſmall ones are placed round the bays and harbours of Scalpay, and along all the creeks of the eaſt coaſt of Harris. There is one in Eaſt Loch Tarbat, called *Sketiſvay*, about a mile long. In the Weſt Loch is a long flat one called *Iſay*. Farther weſt, along the ſhore, are two called *Soay*. Within Scarp, at the mouth of Loch Reſort, is a flat one called *Fladday*. All theſe names appear to be Daniſh. Four leagues north-weſt from Taranſay is a large green iſland, called *Gâaſkier*, which is a Gaelic name ſignifying the "Rock of Geeſe." It is frequented by vaſt flocks of wild geeſe. The gentleman who poſſeſſes it in tack uſed for many years to ſend to it, from the Iſland of Taranſay, twelve heifers and a bull, about the 12th of Auguſt; and they were brought back in high order, early in June, each cow having a calf. One year the whole flock periſhed; and to whatever cauſe the change may be imputed, it is certain that the paſture is now ſo far degenerated that it affords but ſcanty feeding to about twelve ſheep of a very ſmall ſize.

South Iſles of Harris.—Of the ſouth iſles of Harris, four are inhabited, *viz.* Berneray, Pabbay, Calligray, and Euſay. Their general appearance is either flat or gently ſloping from a little elevation in the middle.

1. *Berneray*, lying about a mile north of Uiſt, is a beautiful and fertile iſland, about four miles in length and one mile and a half in breadth. Its north-weſt ſide is much damaged by the breaking of the ſand banks.

2. *Pabbay* lies about a league weſt of Berneray, is of a conical appearance, and riſes to a peak conſiderably higher than any other part of the iſlands in the Sound. Its greateſt diameter may meaſure about two miles and a half. This iſland was once the granary of Harris; but it has loſt much of its fertility by the encroachment of the ſand drift, which now covers its ſouth-eaſt ſide to the very top, exhibiting a moſt deſolate appearance. The ſouth-weſt ſide is verdant and well cultivated. The north-weſt ſide, expoſed to the Atlantic, yields little or no vegetation, the ſpray of the ſea in ſtormy weather waſhing over it.

3, 4. Within one league and a half eaſt from Berneray lie the iſlands of *Calligray* and *Euſay*, ſeparated from each other by a narrow ſound, called Caolas Scaire, through which the tide paſſes with the moſt impetuous current known among theſe coaſts. Theſe iſlands lie in a line from ſouth to north, along the ſouth-weſt end of Harris. The intermediate opening is moſt commonly called the Sound of Harris, and is much frequented by ſhipping. Calligray is about two miles long and a mile broad. The ſouth end is a deep moſs, and for the moſt part uncultivated; the north end, a ſandy ſoil well cultivated. To the northward of this iſland lies Euſay, in ſize and ſhape nearly the ſame as Calligray, being verdant all over, and having a good ſoil well cultivated.

Of the uninhabited iſlands belonging to the ſouthern diviſion, ſome are of conſiderable extent. A few may meaſure a mile in length and about half a mile in breadth. They are covered with heath and moſs, and afford pretty good ſummer paſturage. The ſhores are lined with ſea-weed. The people of the four iſlands already deſcribed repair to them, with their families and cattle, in the ſeaſon of kelp manufacturing. Here moſt of them get peats for fuel, there being no moſs in any of the inhabited iſlands of this diſtrict except Calligray; and to procure this neceſſary article, ſome of them have to go through a moſt dangerous navigation, to the diſtance of almoſt three leagues. The names of the largeſt iſles are, *Hormitray*, *Hulmitray*, *Saartay*, *Veterſay*, *Neartay*, *Opſay*, *Vaalſay*, *Haay*, *Luurſay*, *Terogay*, *Scarray*, *Lingay*, *Groay*, *Gileſay*, *Sagay*, *Stromay*, *Skeilay*, and *Copay*. There are beſides theſe a vaſt number of iſlets, holms, and high rocks, for each of which the people have names. It is remarkable that as the names of the larger iſles terminate in *ay*, ſo the names of the iſlets generally terminate in *em*; e. g. *Fuam*, *Cuudem*, *Ceddem*, &c. From an eminence near the Sound may be had a very curious view of the odd mixture of land, rock, and water, which fills the ſpace betwixt the mainland of Uiſt and the mainland of Harris.

From Harris and its adjacent iſles, a long chain of iſlands continues to the ſouth or ſouth-weſt. The whole chain, from the northern point of Lewis to its ſouthern termination in a few ſmall iſlands called the Biſhop's Iſles, is frequently denominated the Long Iſland.

1. *North Uiſt* is about twenty miles from eaſt to weſt, and from eight to ſixteen north to ſouth; fifteen miles weſt from the iſland of Sky. The word Uiſt is ſaid to be taken from the Scandinavian word *viſt*, which ſignifies *weſt*, and was given by the Danes, when in poſſeſſion of theſe countries, on account of its weſterly ſituation. Along the whole of the weſt coaſt, and round the north end of this iſland, (being almoſt the only parts of it that are cultivated,) the country is low and level for the moſt part of a mile and a half from the ſhore to the moor. In this part of the country the ſoil is ſandy, eſpecially near the ſhore, and at ſome diſtance from it, between that and the moor, is a thin black ground, covering either a hard gravel or ſolid rock, interſperſed in ſome places with flats and meadows. The reſt of the country conſiſts of a barren, ſoft, deep, moor ground, and mountains of no great height covered with heath: the cultivated part of the country is extremely pleaſant and beautiful in ſummer and autumn, yielding, in favourable ſeaſons, the moſt luxuriant crops of barley, and the richeſt paſture of white and red clover; but though, in the warm ſeaſon of the year, no country in the Highlands can exhibit a more delightful proſpect, yet, in the winter and ſpring, the country is quite naked and bare, there being no trees nor high grounds to ſhelter it from the inclemency of the weather. The graſs is ſo ſoft and tender that the winter rains and ſnow take away its ſubſtance, ſo that cattle, during theſe ſeaſons, feed partly upon corn and ſtraw, and partly upon the ſea-weed thrown, in time of bad weather, in great quantities upon the ſhore. That part of the coaſt waſhed by the Atlantic is inacceſſible to veſſels of any burden, and even to ſmall boats, but in very good weather, on account of the rocks, ſhoals, and breakers that ſurround it. In bad weather, when the wind blows upon this part of the coaſt, the ſea ſwells to a prodigious height, and rolls with inexpreſſible violence againſt the ſhores, exhibiting a proſpect awfully grand beyond deſcription. The coaſt on the eaſt ſide of the country is bold, except where it is interſected by inlets of the ſea, which form ſafe and commodious harbours. The harbour fartheſt to the northward is called Cheeſebay, of eaſy acceſs from the ſouth-eaſt, where veſſels may ride with ſafety at all ſeaſons of the year. South of this lies the harbour of Lochmaddie, much frequented by ſhips trading from Ireland and

and the weſt of England and Scotland to the Baltic. It extends five or ſix miles into the country, and, on account of the great number of iſlands it contains, is ſubdivided into ſeveral harbours, which are all ſafe and commodious. Though there may be about 2,000 cows, yet the number exported yearly will not exceed 300, owing to the numbers which die of want and of diſtempers, to which they are here more liable than in any part of the Highlands. The number of horſes may amount at leaſt to 1,600. There are no farms fit for ſheep; but every tenant endeavours to rear as many as will furniſh him with a little mutton, and wool for clothing; they never thrive ſo well as to enable the tenant to export any. The number of ſheep in the whole pariſh may amount to near 5,000, of a very ſmall unmixed breed, covered with fine ſhort wool, of which about 15 fleeces go to a ſtone. In no country can the climate be more variable than in this. There are inſtances of froſt, ſnow, ſleet, and deluges of rain, in the courſe of the ſame day. High gales of wind are frequent throughout the year; but particularly the vernal and autumnal equinoxes are attended with ſtorms that ſometimes prove fatal in their effects upon cattle and corn. The number of inhabitants is about 2,220; and in the whole iſland there are ſix places of public worſhip.

North Uiſt is encompaſſed with ſeveral ſmall iſlands; the moſt remarkable of which are the *Eouſmil*, a ſolid rock, about a quarter of a mile in circumference. It lies on the weſt ſide of North Uiſt, and is noted for the ſeal fiſhing about the end of October. At the diſtance of three leagues and a half more weſt, lie nine outer-more iſlands or rocks, covered with ſea-fowl, and well ſituated for taking ſeals.

2. *Boreray.*—About a league to the northward of North Uiſt lies Boreray, a fertile iſland, a mile and a half long and half a mile broad.

3. *Oronſay.*—Between Boreray and the mainland of North Uiſt lies Oronſay, an iſland only at high water, half a mile long; the ſoil ſandy for the moſt part, but fertile in favourable ſeaſons.

4. *Vallay* is diſtant three miles weſtward from Oronſay, but ſtill north of the mainland of North Uiſt; alſo an iſland only at high water, and ſeparated from the ſhore when the tide is out by a ſand two miles broad. It is a mile and a half long, not half a mile broad. It is beautiful, and fertile in corn and graſs *only* when the ſummer is rainy. In winter and ſpring it is quite barren, the ſurface being covered with ſand, which a gale from the north-weſt never fails to blow over it.

5. *Heiſker.*—Two leagues to the north-weſt of North Uiſt lies

lies Heiſker, nearly two miles in length, but very narrow. The ſoil is ſandy, yields very little graſs at any time, and is only valuable on account of its kelp ſhores and a ſmall quantity of grain it produces.

6, 7. *Kirkbeſt* and *Ileray* lie ſtretched along the weſt coaſt of North Uiſt, pretty cloſe to it, and ſeparated from it and from one another by a ſand which the ſea overflows at high water. The former is one mile long, but very narrow: the ſoil ſandy. The latter is three miles long, and half a mile broad in moſt places. The ſoil is partly ſandy and partly black ground, yielding tolerable crops of barley, and paſture for cattle.

8. *Grimſay.* — South of the mainland of North Uiſt, between it and Benbecula, lies Grimſay, an iſland only at high water: it is barren, two miles in length, and covered with heath, but is very valuable on account of its kelp ſhores.

9. *Benbecula*, is ſeparated from South Uiſt only by two ſhallow channels which at ebb are not above three or four feet deep. There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands on the coaſt of theſe channels; and Benbecula is a ſquare of three miles each way. The eaſtern parts of it are arable, where alſo is a bay for the ſhelter of ſmall veſſels. There are ſeveral ſmall freſh-water lakes well ſtored with fiſh and fowl, and ſmall forts built on the iſlands in thoſe lakes.

10. *South Uiſt.*—This iſland is about twenty miles from north to ſouth, and from ſix to eight wide, of an oblong form, and ſeparated from Barra to the ſouthward and weſtward by a channel or ſound nearly eight or nine miles broad, which never ebbs. Toward the weſt ſide the ſoil is totally light and perfectly ſandy, and the moſt part of it rendered quite uſeleſs by the ſeverity of the conſtant ſtorms that blow from the weſt with the force of the ſea, during the winter and ſpring ſeaſons. Farther back, there is one continued chain of ſwamp and lakes, abounding with the greateſt variety of the fineſt trouts; and ſtill to the eaſtward there are ſteep and lofty mountains, covered with heath and verdure, fit enough for paſturing black cattle, horſes, ſheep, and goats, during the ſummer and autumn months. As the ſoil to the weſt ſide is for the moſt part light and ſandy, it of courſe muſt be barren of itſelf, without the force of manure. There are delightful fields to be ſeen covered with the fineſt natural graſs in ſummer; yet, in the winter ſeaſon, many of theſe very ſpots are covered over with drifted ſand, in ſuch a manner, that the leaſt trace of verdure cannot be ſeen for many months. Were it not for the immenſe quantity of floating ſea-ware that is thrown

aſhore

aſhore during the winter ſtorms, the inhabitants never could manure the ground, ſo as to raiſe a tolerable crop of any kind. Barley, oats, rye, and potatoes, with fiſh, are the chief productions for the ſupport of the inhabitants. It ought to be obſerved alſo, that the produce of the country does not more than ſerve the people for nine months in the year. Kelp is the ſtaple commodity, of which 1,100 tons are, on an average, manufactured in the iſland About 440 or 480 head of cows and young oxen are annually exported. The number of ſheep is about 7,000. The horſes are ſmall, but full of ſpirit, and hardy: their number about 800. There are a few goats, ſome deer and rabbits, with abundance of game, and birds of the aquatic kind, and birds of prey, as eagles, hawks, and falcons. The coaſts abound with fiſh; and numbers of whales are ſeen at particular ſeaſons of the year. The number of inhabitants is eſtimated at 3,450, of which 500 are Proteſtants, and the reſt Roman Catholics.

11. *Eriſca* is ſituated to the ſouthward of South Uiſt. Its extent is trifling, and its population not numerous.

12. *Barray.*—To the ſouthward of theſe is Barra or Barray, which, with a number of leſſer iſlands, conſtitutes a parochial diſtrict, terminating the chain of iſles which ſtretches from Lewis on the north, to Berneray or Biſhop's Iſle on the ſouth. The principal iſlands, beſides Barray, that are inhabited, are *Waterſay*, *Sanderay*, *Dabay*, *Mengalay*, and *Berneray*, to the ſouth; *Flodday*, *Helleſay*, and *Gigay*, on the eaſt; there is beſides, a number of ſmaller iſlands not inhabited. The main iſland of Barray is eight computed miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, being interſected in different places by arms of the ſea. The iſland of *Waterſay*, ſeparated from the main iſland by a channel of one mile, is about three miles in length, and in ſome places a mile and a half broad. The next is *Sanderay*, diſtant five miles from Barray. It is two miles in length, two in breadth, and contains nine families. *Mengalay*, at the diſtance of twelve miles, two miles in length, and two miles in breadth, contains eight families. The laſt is *Berneray*, which from its being called the Biſhop's Iſle, ſeems to have once belonged to the biſhop of the iſles. It is ſixteen miles diſtant from Barray, one mile in length, three-fourths of a mile in breadth, and contains three families. Theſe iſlands are fertile in corn and graſs, but liable to be blaſted by the ſouth-weſt winds, which frequently blow here. They are very difficult of acceſs, on account of the ſtrong currents running between them; and landing is ſometimes not only difficult but hazardous. Cloſe by the iſland of Mengalay is a high rock, with very

very luxuriant graſs growing at the top of it. The inhabitants of this iſland climb to the top, at the riſk of their lives, and by means of a rope carry up their wedders to fatten.

13. *Kiſmul*, lies very near to Barra on the ſouth; this with ſome adjacent iſles belongs to the Macneals of Barra. The natives are ſaid to have been formerly Papiſts, but their lord among other means of converting them, uſed that which Dr. Johnſon has commemorated in the following anecdote. "The inhabitants of Rum," he ſays, "continued Papiſts for ſome time after the laird became a Proteſtant. Their adherence to their old religion was ſtrengthened by the countenance of the laird's ſiſter, a zealous Romaniſt, till one Sunday as they were going to maſs under the conduct of their patroneſs, Maclean met them on the way, gave one of them a blow on the head with a *yellow ſtick*, I ſuppoſe a cane, for which the Earſe had no name, and drove them to the kirk, from which they have never ſince departed. Since the uſe of this method of converſion, the inhabitants of Egg and Canna, who continue Papiſts, call the proteſtantiſm of Rum, the religion of the *yellow ſtick*."

14. *Sky*, is one of the largeſt of thoſe called the Weſtern Iſlands, being 47 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and from 12 to 20 in breadth, from eaſt to weſt; ſeparated by a narrow channel from the county of Inverneſs. Toward the ſouth-weſt is a chain of rude mountains, black and red, which according to Mr. Pennant, appears as if diſcoloured by fire, and on the eaſt a long extent of lofty hills: there is, however a conſiderable quantity of level ground, which affords paſture, and is capable of tillage. In the mountains are found quarries of marble and limeſtone; with ſome appearance of mineral ores. Dr. Johnſon, who viſited Sky, ſays, "as this iſland lies in the fifty-ſeventh degree, the air cannot be ſuppoſed to have much warmth. Sky lies open on the weſt and north to a vaſt extent of ocean, and is cooled in the ſummer by perpetual ventilation, but by the ſame blaſts is kept warm in winter. Their weather is not pleaſing. Half the year is deluged with rain. From the autumnal to the vernal equinox, a dry day is hardly known, except when the ſhowers are ſuſpended by a tempeſt. Under ſuch ſkies can be expected no great exuberance of vegetation. Their winter overtakes their ſummer, and their harveſt lies upon the ground drenched with rain. The autumn ſtruggles hard to produce ſome of our early fruit. We gathered gooſeberries in September; but they were ſmall, and the huſk was thick. Their winter is ſeldom ſuch as puts a ſtop to the growth of plants, or reduces the cattle to live wholly on the ſurpluſage of the ſummer. In the year 1771, they had a ſevere ſeaſon. The

The ſnow lay long on the ground, a calamity hardly known before. Part of their cattle died for want, part were unſeaſonably ſold to buy ſuſtenance for the owners. The ſoil, as in other countries, has its diverſities. In ſome parts there is only a thin layer of earth ſpread upon a rock, which bears nothing but a ſhort brown heath, and, perhaps, is not generally capable of any better product. There are many bogs or moſſes of greater or leſs extent, where the ſoil cannot be ſuppoſed to want depth, though it is too wet for the plough. The vallies and the mountains are alike darkened with heath.

Some graſs, however, grows here and there, and ſome happier ſpots of earth are capable of tillage. Their agriculture is laborious, and, perhaps, rather feeble than unſkilful. Their chief manure is ſea-weed, which when they lay to rot upon the field, gives them a better crop than thoſe of the Highlands. They heap ſea-ſhells upon the dunghill, which in time moulder into a fertilizing ſubſtance. When they find a vein of earth where they cannot uſe it, they dig it up, and add it to the mould of a more commodious place. Their corn grounds often lie in ſuch intricacies among the craggs, that there is no room for the action of a plough. The ſoil is then turned up by manual labour, with an inſtrument called a crooked ſpade. The grain which they commit to the furrows thus tediouſly formed, is either oats or barley. They do not ſow barley without very copious manure, and then they expect from it ten for one, an increaſe equal to that of better countries. When their grain is arrived at the ſtate which they muſt conſider as ripening, they do not cut, but pull the barley: to the oats they apply the ſickle. Wheel carriages they have none, but make a frame of timber which is drawn by one horſe with the two points behind preſſing on the ground. On this they ſometimes drag home their ſheaves, but often convey them home in a kind of panier or frame of ſticks on the horſe's back. Their rocks abound with kelp, a ſea plant, of which the aſhes are melted into glaſs. They burn kelp in great quantities, and ſend it away in ſhips, which come regularly to purchaſe them. The cattle of Sky are not ſo ſmall as is commonly believed. Since they have ſent their beeves in great numbers to the ſouthern marts, they have probably taken more care of their breed. Their horſes are, like their cows, of a moderate ſize. The goats and the ſheep are milked like their cows. A ſingle meal of a goat is a quart, and of a ſheep a pint. There are in Sky neither rats nor mice; but the weaſel is ſo frequent, that he is heard in houſes rattling behind cheſts or beds, as rats in England. The inhabitants of Sky, and of the other iſlands which I have ſeen, are com-

monly of the middle ſtature, with fewer among them very tall or very ſhort, than are ſeen in England." In the year 1746 Prince Charles Stuart concealed himſelf in a cave on this iſland for two nights.

15. *Raaſay.*—"The length of Raaſay," ſays Dr. Johnſon, "is, by computation, fifteen miles, and the breadth two. Theſe countries have never been meaſured, and the computation by miles is negligent and arbitrary. We obſerved in travelling, that the nominal and real diſtance of places had very little relation to each other. Raaſay probably contains near a hundred ſquare miles. It affords not much ground, notwithſtanding its extent, either for tillage or paſture; for it is rough, rocky, and barren. The cattle often periſh by falling from the precipices. It is like the other iſlands, I think, generally naked of ſhade, but it is naked by neglect; for the laird has an orchard, and very large foreſt trees grow about his houſe. Like other hilly countries it has many rivulets. One of the brooks turns a corn mill, and at leaſt one produces trouts. In the ſtreams or freſh lakes of the iſlands, I have never heard of any other fiſh than trouts and eels. Raaſay has wild fowl in abundance, but neither deer, hares, nor rabbits. Attempts have been made to raiſe roebucks in Raaſay, but without effect. The young ones it is extremely difficult to rear, and the old can very ſeldom be taken alive. Hares and rabbits can be more eaſily obtained. That they have few or none of either in Sky, they impute to the ravage of the foxes, and have therefore ſet, for ſome years paſt, a price upon their heads, which as the number was diminiſhed, has been gradually raiſed, from three ſhillings and ſixpence to a guinea, a ſum ſo great in this part of the world, that in a ſhort time Sky may be as free from foxes as England from wolves. The beaſts of prey in the iſlands are foxes, otters, and weaſels. The foxes are bigger than thoſe of England; but the otters exceed ours in a far greater proportion. In Raaſay they might have hares and rabbits, for they have no foxes. The corn of this iſland is but little. I ſaw the harveſt of a ſmall field. The women reaped the corn, and the men bound up the ſheaves. The ſtrokes of the ſickle were timed by the modulation of the harveſt ſong, in which all their voices were united. The ground of Raaſay ſeems fitter for cattle than for corn; and of black cattle I ſuppoſe the number is very great. Raaſay is ſuppoſed to have been very long inhabited. On one ſide of it they ſhow caves into which the rude nations of the firſt ages retreated from the weather. Theſe dreary vaults might have had other uſes. A proof much ſtronger of the diſtance at which the firſt poſſeſſors of this iſland lived from the

the preſent time, is afforded by the ſtone heads of arrows which are very frequently picked up. The people call them *elf-bolts*, and believe that the fairies ſhoot them at the cattle. Near the houſe at Raaſay is a chapel unroofed and ruinous, which has long been uſed only as a place of burial. About the churches in the iſlands are ſmall ſquares incloſed with ſtone, which belong to particular families, as repoſitories for the dead. At Raaſay there is one, I think for the proprietor, and one for ſome collateral houſe. In this iſland are alſo a petrifying ſpring, and a quarry of free-ſtone."

16. *Ronay.*—To the northward of Raaſay is the iſland of Ronay, which is about four miles in length and nearly two in breadth. It is the property of Macleod of Raaſay. It is rocky and barren, but affords paſture to 160 cattle. It has a good bay or harbour, but no veſſels put into it unleſs forced by the weather or other accidents.

17. *Fladday*, is a green iſlet lying to the northward of Ronay. It is about two miles in circumference, and its coaſts abound in fiſh.

18. *Haverſay*, *Vuſay*, and *Soay*.—On the weſtern ſide of Sky, attached to the pariſh of Braccadale, are the iſlands of Haverſay, Vuſay, and Soay. Theſe iſlands are not inhabited, but are only pendicles to the different farms on the ſhore that are oppoſite to them, and afford paſture for cattle during part of the ſummer and winter ſeaſons.

19. *Egg*, an iſle of which the computed circumference is ten miles: it has paſture lands, and ſome which may bear corn.

The iſlands which are reckoned among the Hebrides, and are annexed to Argyleſhire, are,

1. *Canna*, which lies about half a mile from Rum, is in length three miles and breadth one, its ſurface is hilly, producing paſture for conſiderable numbers of cattle, but little corn. On the north-eaſt ſide is good paſturage.

2. *Rum*, is nearly adjacent to Coll, and eſtimated at ſix miles long and four broad. It is repreſented as mountainous, rugged, and barren. In the hills are red deer. The horſes are very ſmall, but of a breed eminent for beauty. This iſle is thinly inhabited; but it ſwarms with ſea-fowl, eſpecially puffins, which lay their eggs here in vaſt quantities.

3. *Muck* is two miles in length, and one in breadth, fruitful in corn and graſs, ſurrounded with rocks; and particularly noted for good hawks.

4. *Coll.*—This iſland is computed to be thirteen miles in length and three in breadth. Both the ends are the property of the Duke of Argyle, but the middle belongs to Maclean.

Coll

Col is not properly rocky; it is rather one continued rock, of a ſurface much diverſified with protuberances, and covered with a thin layer of earth, which is often broken and diſcovers the ſtone. This iſland has many lochs, ſome of which have trouts and eels, and others have never yet been ſtocked. Their quadrupeds are horſes, cows, ſheep, and goats. They have neither deer, hares, nor rabbits. They have no vermin, except rats, which have been lately brought thither by ſea, as to other places; and are free from ſerpents, frogs and toads. This iſland is unuſually populous, and its coaſt produces excellent cod and ling.

5. *Tyrey.* — This iſland, ſituated about ſix miles weſt from Saint Columbus, is about eight miles in length and three in breadth. It abounds with corn, cattle, fiſh and fowl; has a freſh water lake with an iſland and an old caſtle in it; and has an harbour for boats uſed in thoſe parts. The property of this iſland originally belonged to the Mackleans; but from them it paſſed to the Argyle family.

6. *Ulva.* — Ulva is a ſmall iſle lying ſouth-eaſt from Coll, and cloſe upon the ſouth-weſt ſhore of Mull. Its general aſpect is barren and rocky. It has land fit as well for agriculture as for paſture. Fiſhes may be caught in abundance round the coaſt. Sea weeds grow on the ſhores. It has from the moſt ancient times been accounted fertile, and affords at preſent grain more than ſufficient for the ſupport of its inhabitants. It was long the ſeat of the ancient family of the M'Quarrys. It is little more than two miles in circumference. The ſound of Ulva, or ſtrait that divides it from Mull, affords ſafe anchoring ground for coaſting veſſels.

7. *Gometra.* — Adjacent to Ulva, on its weſtern ſide, is the ſtill ſmaller iſle of Gometra, remarkable only for ſome baſaltic pillars, and for two bays or harbours: one facing the ſouth, and the other the north; both accounted ſafe for ſmall veſſels.

8. *Inch Kenneth.* — On the ſouthern ſide of Ulva is Inch Kenneth, ſcarcely a mile diſtant from the coaſt of Mull. It may be about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. It is deſtitute of trees, but verdant; affording rich paſture, and ſufficiently ſuſceptible of tillage. It was once a ſeminary of monks, dependant on the latter iſland. The veſtiges of a chapel ſtill remain. Here Dr. Samuel Johnſon was hoſpitably entertained by Sir Allan M'Lean and his daughters, who had an elegant reſidence on this ſequeſtered ſpot.

9. *Staffa.* — This iſland, though it may be regarded as one of the greateſt curioſities in the world, has till lately been ſcarcely known. It is juſt mentioned by Buchannan by name; and though the native Hebridians conſidered the cave as one

of the ſeats or palaces of their hero Fingal, it was never regarded by any intelligent traveller. A Mr. Leach ſeems to be among the firſt that noticed it. He was a native of England; and being on a viſit at Drimnen in Morven, on one of his fiſhing excurſions, he happened to go near it. Being ſtruck with the ſingularity of its appearance, he landed upon it, and examined it particularly. This was in the year 1772. A few days afterwards Sir Joſeph Banks, in his way to Iceland, caſt anchor in the ſound of Mull, oppoſite to Drimnen, and was immediately invited to land by Mr. M'Lean, who entertained him and his party with great hoſpitality. Here Mr. Leach related to Sir Joſeph what he had ſeen; which excited his curioſity ſo ſtrongly, that he could not reſiſt the offer made by this gentleman to accompany him to Staffa. Sir Joſeph Banks afterwards publiſhed, or rather allowed Mr. Pennant to publiſh, an account of his expedition, in ſuch terms of admiration as excited great curioſity; and it has ſince been viſited by a variety of perſons. "We arrived," he ſays, "at the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, the ſeat of the moſt remarkable pillars; where we no ſooner arrived than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though formed, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine foundation. The whole of that end of the iſland ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves; upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs, as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe above ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt into the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture. Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or the palaces built by man? Mere models or playthings! Imitations as diminutive as his works will always be when compared to thoſe of nature! Where is now the boaſt of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in her poſſeſſion; and here it has been for ages undeſcribed. Is not this the ſchool were the art was originally ſtudied? And what has been added to this by the whole Grecian ſchool? a capital to ornament the column of Nature, of which they could execute only a model; and for that very capital they were obliged to a buſh of acanthus. How amply does Nature repay thoſe who ſtudy her wonderful works! With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, tread-

ing upon another Giant's Cauſeway, every ſtone being formed into a certain number of ſides and angles, till in a ſhort time we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers.

" The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broke off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour with a great deal of elegance: and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without: and the air within, being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tides, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp vapours with which natural caverns in general abound. We aſked the name of it. Said our guide, 'The Cave of Fhinn.' 'What is Fhinn?' ſaid we. 'Fhinn M'Coul, whom the tranſlator of Oſſian's works has called Fingal.' How fortunate, that in this cave we ſhould meet with the remembrance of that chief, whoſe exiſtence, as well as that of the whole epic poem, is almoſt doubted in England! Enough for the beauties of Staffa. I ſhall now proceed to deſcribe it and its productions more philoſophically.

" The little iſland of Staffa lies on the weſt coaſt of Mull, about three leagues north-eaſt from Iona, or I-Columb-Kill. Its greateſt length is about an Engliſh mile, and its breadth about half a one. On the weſt ſide of the iſle is a ſmall bay, where boats generally land; a little to the ſouthward of which the firſt appearance of pillars are to be obſerved. They are ſmall; and inſtead of being placed upright, lie down on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle. From thence you paſs a ſmall cave; above which the pillars, now grown a little larger, are inclining in all directions. In one place in particular, a ſmall maſs of them very much reſembles the ribs of a ſhip. From hence, having paſſed the cave, which, if it is not low water, you muſt do in a boat, you come to the firſt ranges of pillars, which are ſtill not above half as large as thoſe a little beyond. Over againſt this place is a ſmall iſland, called in Erſe *Boo-ſha-la*, or more properly *Buachaille*, or " the Herdſman," ſeparated from the main by a channel not many fathoms wide. This whole iſland is compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum above them. They are ſtill ſmall, but by much the neateſt formed of any about the place. The firſt diviſion of the iſland, for at high water it is divided into two, makes a kind of a cone, the pillars converging together

towards the centre. On the other they are generally laid down flat; and in the front next to the main, you ſee how beautifully they are packed together; their ends coming out ſquare with the bank which they form. All theſe have their tranſverſe ſections exact, and their ſurfaces ſmooth, which is by no means the caſe with the large ones, which are cracked in all directions. I much queſtion, however, if any one in this whole iſland of Buachaille is two feet in diameter. The main iſland oppoſed to Boo-ſha-la, and farther towards the north-weſt, is ſupported by ranges of pillars pretty erect; and though not tall (as they are not uncovered to the baſe) of large diameters; and at their feet is an irregular pavement, made by the upper ſides of ſuch as have been broken off, which extends as far under water as the eye can reach. Here the forms of the pillars are apparent: theſe are of three, four, five, ſix, and ſeven ſides; but the numbers of five and ſix are by much the moſt prevalent. The largeſt I meaſured was of ſeven. It was four feet five inches in diameter. I ſhall give the meaſurement of its ſides, and thoſe of ſome other forms which I met with:

No. I. Four ſides.
Diam. 1 foot 5 inches.

	Feet.	Inches.
Firſt ſide -	1	5
Second -	1	1
Third -	1	6
Fourth -	1	1

No. II. Five ſides.
Diam. 2 feet 10 inches.

	Feet.	Inches.
Firſt ſide -	1	10
Second -	1	10
Third -	1	5
Fourth -	1	7½
Fifth - -	1	8

No. III. Six ſides.
Diam. 3 feet 6 inches.

	Feet.	Inches.
Firſt ſide -	0	10
Second -	2	2
Third -	2	2
Fourth -	1	11
Fifth - -	2	2
Sixth - -	2	9

No. IV. Seven ſides.
Diam. 4 feet 5 inches.

	Feet.	Inches.
Firſt ſide -	2	10
Second -	2	4
Third -	1	10
Fourth -	2	0
Fifth - -	1	1
Sixth -	1	6
Seventh -	1	3

"The ſurfaces of theſe large pillars, in general, are rough and uneven, full of cracks in all directions. The tranſverſe figures in the upright ones never fail to run in their true directions. The ſurfaces upon which we walked were often flat, having neither concavity nor convexity. The larger number, however, were concave, though ſome were very evidently

convex. In ſome places the interſtices within the perpendicular figures were filled up with a yellow ſpar. In one place a vein paſſed in the maſs of pillars, carrying here and there ſmall threads of ſpar. Though they were broken and cracked through and through in all directions, yet their perpendicular figures might eaſily be traced. From whence it is eaſy to infer, that whatever the accident might have been that cauſed the diſlocation, it happened after the formation of the pillars. From hence, proceeding along ſhore, you arrive at Fingal's Cave. The dimenſions appear in the following table:

	Feet.	Inches.
Length of the cave from the rock without -	371	6
From the pitch of the arch -	250	0
Breadth of ditto at the mouth - -	53	7
At the farther end - - -	20	0
Height of the arch at the mouth - -	117	6
At the end - - - -	70	0
Height of an outſide pillar - -	39	6
Of one at the north-weſt corner - -	54	0
Depth of water at the mouth - -	18	0
At the bottom - - - -	9	0

"The cave runs into the rock in the direction of north-eaſt by eaſt by the compaſs. Proceeding farther to the north-weſt you meet with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent deſcription of which is paſt all deſcription. Here they are bare to their very baſis, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible. In a ſhort time it riſes many feet above the water, and gives an opportunity of examining its quality. Its ſurface rough, and has often large lumps of ſtone ſticking in it, as if half immerſed. Itſelf, when broken, is compoſed of a thouſand heterogeneous parts, which together have very much the appearance of a lava; and the more ſo as many of the lumps appear to be of the very ſame ſtone of which the pillars are formed. This whole ſtratum lies in an inclined poſition, dipping gradually towards the ſouth-eaſt. As hereabouts is the ſituation of the higheſt pillars, I ſhall mention my meaſurements of them and the different ſtrata in this place, premiſing that the meaſurements were made with a line, held in the hand of a perſon who ſtood at the top of the cliff, and reaching to the bottom, to the lower end of which was tied a white mark, which was obſerved by one who ſtaid below for the purpoſe. When this mark was ſet off from the water, the perſon below noted it down, and made ſignal to him

above, who made then a mark in his rope. Whenever this mark paſſed a notable place, the ſame ſignal was made, and the name of the place noted down as before. The line being all hauled up, and the diſtances between the marks meaſured and noted down, gave, when compared with the book kept below, the diſtances, as for inſtance, in the cave:

"No. I. in the book below, was called from the water to the foot of the firſt pillar, in the book above; No. I. gave 36 feet 8 inches, the higheſt of that aſcent, which was compoſed of broken pillars.

No. I. *Pillar at the weſt corner of Fingal's Cave.*

	Feet.	Inches.
1. From the water to the foot of the pillar -	12	10
2. Height of the pillar - - -	37	3
3. Stratum above the pillar - -	66	9

No. II. *Fingal's Cave.*

1. From the water to the foot of the pillar -	36	8
2. Height of the pillar - - -	39	6
3. From the top of the pillar to the top of the arch - - - - -	31	4
4. Thickneſs of the ſtratum above - -	34	4
By adding together the firſt three meaſurements, we got the height of the arch from the water - - -	117	6

No. III. *Corner pillar to the weſtward of Fingal's Cave.*

Stratum below the pillar of lava-like matter -	11	0
Length of pillar - - - -	54	0
Stratum above the pillar - - -	61	6

No. IV. *Another pillar to the weſtward.*

Stratum below the pillar - - -	17	1
Height of the pillar - - -	50	0
Stratum above - - - -	51	1

No. V. *Another pillar farther to the weſtward.*

Stratum below the pillar - - -	19	8
Height of the pillar - - -	55	1
Stratum above - - - -	54	7

The ſtratum above the pillars which is here mentioned is uniformly the ſame, conſiſting of numberleſs ſmall pillars bending

ing and inclining in all directions; ſometimes ſo irregularly, that the ſtones can only be ſaid to have an inclination to aſſume a columnal form; in others more regular, but never breaking into or diſturbing the ſtratum of large pillars, whoſe tops every where keep an uniform and irregular line. Proceeding now along ſhore, round the north end of the iſland, you arrive at *Oua-na-Scarve*, or the "Corvorant's Cave." Here the ſtratum under the pillars is lifted up very high: the pillars above it are conſiderably leſs than thoſe at the north-weſt end of the iſland, but ſtill very conſiderable. Beyond is a bay which cuts deep into the iſland, rendering it in that place not more than a quarter of a mile over. On the ſides of this bay, eſpecially beyond a little valley, which almoſt cuts the iſland in two, are two ſtages of pillars, but ſmall; however having a ſtratum between them exactly the ſame as that above them, formed of innumerable little pillars, ſhaken out of their places, and leaning in all directions. Having paſſed this bay, the pillars totally ceaſe. The rock is of dark brown ſtone; and no ſigns of regularity occur till you have paſſed round the ſouth-eaſt end of the iſland (a ſpace almoſt as large as that occupied by the pillars), which you meet again on the weſt ſide, beginning to form themſelves irregularly, as if the ſtratum had an inclination to that form, and ſoon arrive at the bending pillars where I began. The ſtone of which the pillars are formed is a coarſe kind of baſaltes, very much reſembling the Giant's Cauſeway in Ireland."

This account from Sir Joſeph Banks is given chiefly becauſe of the correct meaſurements of the baſaltic columns, to take which muſt have been a work of much trouble and difficulty. It may be added, that on the north ſide of Staffa is a large cavern; and that when the waves of the ſurrounding ocean are agitated and daſh themſelves againſt this part of the rock, the approaching wave fills the cavern, and at the ſame time compreſſes the air within, which by the force of its ſpring or recoil, again forces out the water in white froth or ſmoke, with a report ſimilar to the firing of cannon, which is heard at a great diſtance. It may be remarked, alſo, that the ſea during winter, ruſhing into the caverns which penetrate the iſland, ſhakes the whole maſs to its foundation. Some poor people that reſided there one winter to take care of the cattle, were ſo terrified by the rocking of their miſerable hut in tempeſtuous weather, that they ſeized the firſt opportunity of forſaking the iſland, believing that the ſtrange concuſſions which they felt could proceed from nothing but the rage of an evil ſpirit. The Cave of Fingal is undoubtedly one of the moſt magnificent objects which the eye can behold; conſiſting, as it

does, of a maſſy roof of enormous weight reſting on the tops of regular columns. The roof conſiſts of fragments of pillars, the ſhafts of which have been waſhed away by the ocean. The fragments are cemented by calcareous matter; which, when contraſted with the dark purple hexagons formed by the ends of pillars, gives the whole the appearance of Moſaic work. Between the upright pillars is often found a cement, generally of a beautiful white colour, interſperſed with rhomboidal and priſmatic cryſtals, which are ſometimes tinged with green. This ſubſtance is in general calcareous ſpar (cryſtallized carbonate of lime). In ſome inſtances, however, the ſpace is filled up with infiltrations of beautiful white granite. In the very midſt of the baſaltic pillars, when broken, are to be found pieces of radiated zeolite. At the farther extremity of the Cave of Fingal is a ſmall cave, which from certain paſſages ſends forth an agreeable noiſe; hence it has received the name of *An-ua-Vine*, or the "Melodious Cave."

Dr. Uno Van Troil, the learned biſhop of Linckæ-peng, who viſited Staffa along with Sir Joſeph Banks, in his Letters on Iceland, gives the following animated account of this cave: "How magnificent are the remains we have of the porticoes of the ancients! And with what admiration do we behold the colonnades which adorn the principal buildings of our times! And yet every one who compares them with Fingal's Cave, formed by nature in the iſland of Staffa, muſt readily acknowledge that this piece of nature's architecture far ſurpaſſes every thing that invention, luxury, and taſte, ever produced among the Greeks."

"This ſuperb monument," ſays M. de St. Fond, "of a grand ſubterraneous combuſtion, the date of which has been loſt in the lapſe of ages, preſents an appearance of order and regularity ſo wonderful, that it is difficult for the coldeſt obſerver, and one the leaſt ſenſible to the phenomena which relate to the convulſions of the globe, not to be ſingularly aſtoniſhed by this prodigy, which may be conſidered as a ſort of natural palace. I (adds he) have ſeen many ancient volcanoes, and I have given deſcriptions of ſeveral ſuperb baſaltic cauſeways and delightful caverns in the midſt of lavas, but I have never found any thing which comes near to this, or can bear any compariſon with it, for the admirable regularity of the columns, the height of the arch, the ſituation, the form, the elegance of this production of nature, or its reſemblance to the maſter-pieces of art, though this has had no ſhare in its conſtruction. It is therefore not at all ſurpriſing that tradition ſhould have made it the abode of a hero."

10. *St. Columbus, Icolm-Kill,* or *Iona.*—The iſland bearing theſe ſeveral names is the moſt renowned of the Hebrides. It is about three miles long and one broad, the land being flat and level toward the eaſt, on the oppoſite rough and rocky, and productive in an unuſual degree. Its firſt name is derived from its having been the reſidence of a ſaint and his diſciples. It was alſo the abode of the biſhop of the iſles, and of ſome kings, and is ſaid to have afforded a burial place to many Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian ſovereigns. The ſecond name is Iriſh, the third modern, and probably derived from the ſecond. The following deſcription is in the animated and energetic words of Dr. Johnſon, in his tour to the Hebrides:

"We were now," he ſays, "treading that illuſtrious iſland which was once the luminary of the Caledonian regions, whence ſavage clans and roving barbarians derived the benefit of knowledge and the bleſſings of religion. To abſtract the mind from all local emotion would be impoſſible, if it were endeavoured, and would be fooliſh if it were poſſible. Whatever withdraws us from the power of our ſenſes; whatever makes the paſt, the diſtant, or the future predominate over the preſent, advances us in the dignity of thinking beings. Far from me and from my friends be ſuch frigid philoſophy, as may conduct us indifferent and unmoved over any ground which has been dignified by wiſdom, bravery, or virtue. That man is little to be envied whoſe patriotiſm would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon, or whoſe piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona. The churches of the two convents are both ſtanding, though unroofed. They were built of unhewn ſtone, but ſolid, and not inelegant. The epiſcopal church conſiſts of two parts, ſeparated by the belfry, and built at different times. The original church had, like others, the altar at one end and the tower at the other; but as it grew too ſmall, another building of equal dimenſion was added, and the tower then was neceſſarily in the middle. That theſe edifices are of different ages ſeems evident. The arch of the firſt church is Roman, being part of a circle; that of the additional building is pointed, and therefore *Gothic* or *Saracenical;* the tower is firm, and wants only to be floored and covered. Of the chambers or cells belonging to the monks, there are ſome walls remaining, but nothing approaching to a complete apartment. The bottom of the church is ſo encumbered with mud and rubbiſh, that we could make no diſcoveries of curious inſcriptions, and what there are have been already publiſhed. The place is ſaid to be known where the black ſtones lie concealed, on which the old Highland chiefs, when they made contracts and alliances, uſed to take the oath, which

which was conſidered as more ſacred than any other obligation, and which could not be violated without the blackeſt infamy. In thoſe days of violence and rapine, it was of great importance to impreſs upon ſavage minds the ſanctity of an oath, by ſome particular and extraordinary circumſtances. They would not have recourſe to the black ſtones upon ſmall or common occaſions; and when they had eſtabliſhed their faith by this tremendous ſanction, inconſtancy and treachery were no longer feared. The chapel of the nunnery is now uſed by the inhabitants as a kind of general cow-houſe, and the bottom is conſequently too miry for examination. Some of the ſtones which covered the later abbeſſes have inſcriptions, which might yet be read, if the chapel were cleanſed. The roof of this, as of all the other buildings, is totally deſtroyed, not only becauſe timber quickly decays when it is neglected, but becauſe in an iſland utterly deſtitute of wood, it was wanted for uſe, and was conſequently the firſt plunder of needy rapacity. The chancel of the nuns' chapel is covered with an arch of ſtone, to which time has done no injury; and a ſmall apartment communicating with the choir, on the north ſide, like the chapter-houſe in cathedrals, roofed with ſtone in the ſame manner, is likewiſe entire. In one of the churches was a marble altar, which the ſuperſtition of the inhabitants has deſtroyed. Their opinion was, that a fragment of this ſtone was a defence againſt ſhipwrecks, fire, and miſcarriages. In one corner of the church the baſon for holy water is yet unbroken. The cemetery of the nunnery was, till very lately, regarded with ſuch reverence, that only women were buried in it. Theſe reliques of veneration always produce ſome mournful pleaſure. I could have forgiven a great injury more eaſily than the violation of this imaginary ſanctity. South of the chapel ſtand the walls of a large room, which was probably the hall or refectory of the nunnery. This apartment is capable of repair. Of the reſt of the convent there are only fragments.

"Beſides the two principal churches, there are, I think, five chapels yet ſtanding, and three more remembered. There are alſo croſſes, of which two bear the names of St. John and St. Matthew. A large ſpace of ground about theſe conſecrated edifices is covered with grave ſtones, few of which have any inſcription. He that ſurveys it, attended by an inſular antiquary, may be told where the kings of many nations are buried; and if he loves to ſoothe his imagination with the thoughts that naturally riſe in places where the great and the powerful lie mingled with the duſt, let him liſten in ſubmiſſive

miſſive ſilence; for if he aſks any queſtions, his delight is at an end.

"Iona has long enjoyed, without any very credible atteſtation, the honour of being reputed the cemetry of the Scottiſh kings. It is not unlikely, that, when the opinion of local ſanctity was prevalent, the chieftains of the iſles, and perhaps ſome of the Norwegian or Iriſh princes, were repoſited in this venerable incloſure. But by whom the ſubterraneous vaults are peopled, is now utterly unknown. The graves are very numerous, and ſome of them undoubtedly contain the remains of men who did not expect to be ſo ſoon forgotten.

"Not far from this awful ground may be traced the garden of the monaſtery: the fiſh-ponds are yet diſcernible; and the aqueduct which ſupplied them is ſtill in uſe.

"There remains a broken building, which is called the biſhop's houſe, I know not by what authority. It was once the reſidence of ſome man above the common rank, for it has two ſtories and a chimney. We were ſhewn a chimney at the other end, which was only a niche without perforation; but ſo much does antiquarian credulity or patriotic vanity prevail, that it was not much more ſafe to truſt the eye of our inſtructor than the memory.

"There is in the iſland one houſe more, and only one, that has a chimney; we entered it, and found it neither wanting repair nor inhabitants; but to the farmers who now poſſeſs it, the chimney is of no great value; for their fire was made on the floor in the middle of the room, and notwithſtanding the dignity of their manſion, they rejoiced, like their neighbours, in the comforts of ſmoke.

"It is obſerved that eccleſiaſtical colleges are always in the moſt pleaſant and fruitful places. While the world allowed the monks their choice, it is ſurely no diſhonour that they choſe well. This iſland is remarkably fruitful. The village near the churches is ſaid to contain ſeventy families, which, at five in a family, is more than a hundred inhabitants to a mile. There are perhaps other villages; yet both corn and cattle are annually exported.

"But the fruitfulneſs of Iona is now its whole proſperity. The inhabitants are remarkably groſs, and remarkably neglected: I know not if they are viſited by any miniſter. The iſland, which was once the metropolis of learning and piety, has now no ſchool for education nor temple for worſhip, only two inhabitants that can ſpeak Engliſh, and not one that can write or read. The people are of the clan of Maclean."

11. *Mull.*—The Iſle of Mull is ſeparated from Argyleſhire, to which it belongs, by a narrow paſſage called the *Sound of Mull.*

Mull. The ſhape is very irregular; toward the eaſt, it tends to a round; on the weſt it is hollow, and indented with conſiderable lochs and bays, which contain ſeveral ſmall iſlands. From north to ſouth it is about 22 miles; from eaſt to weſt, at the ſouthern extremity, it is as much, but towards the north, not more than eight; nor is any part of the iſland ſix miles from the ſea. The bays form ſome good harbours. It affords good paſture, barley and oats, and plenty of cattle, deer, fiſh, fowl, other game, and very fine hawks. The air is temperate, the cold and moiſt being qualified by the breezes from the mountains. The bay of Duart, on the weſt ſide, is a good anchoring place. There is a caſtle at Duart, and two more. Here are ſeveral freſh-water lakes full of trout, &c., and ſeveral rivers which afford ſalmon, and abound with black muſcles which breed pearl. There are no villages except Tobermorey, near the northern point, where a fiſhing-ſtation has been erected. This iſland has only two churches, but there are the ruins of ſeveral more places of devotion, which are ſuffered to go to decay; and the ruins of ſeveral ancient caſtles ſtill remain. Mull is environed with ſeveral ſmall iſles, ſome of which are fruitful and ſome impregnable. The bay called Loch-leffan abounds with herring and ſhell-fiſh. In the Sound or Bay of Mull, betwixt this iſle and Lochabar, a great ſhip called the Florida, one of the Spaniſh invincible armada, was loſt after their defeat by the Engliſh fleet in the Straits of Dover, attempting to eſcape north about, in the year 1588. Many of the guns and valuable effects have from time to time been got out of her by divers.

12. *Liſmore*, otherwiſe called *Leſſimore*.—This iſland is about nine miles long and one and a half broad, and ſituated in the mouth of Loch Yiol, or Linnhe, near the coaſt of the county of Argyle. It is ſuppoſed to have been once clothed with foreſts, but at preſent bears little wood. The ground appears to be fertile, the leſſer vegetables grow with uncommon vigour, and the chief produce of the land is oats and bear, a ſpecies of barley. The parts that are not arable are filled with the tips of ſharp rocks peeping above the ſurface. The land is in general low, and the ſtrata lime-ſtone. This iſland had been the ſeat of the biſhop of Argyle; the ſee was disjoined from that of Dunkeld about the year 1200, at the requeſt of John the Engliſhman, biſhop of that dioceſe. There are no reliques of the cathedral or the biſhop's houſe. The inhabitants are poor, the cattle ſmall, and their horſes weak and ſhort lived.

13. *Kerrera.*—Southward to the coaſt of Lorn is the iſland of Kerrera, ſituated about eight miles from the iſland of Mull, and one mile from the mainland of the diſtrict of Lorn. It is four

four miles in length and two in breadth, and is included in the parish of Kilbride. It is very hilly, and many of the rocks have a volcanic appearance. It possesses two good harbours, called the Arintraive and Horse-shoe Bay.

14. *Easdale.*—Farther south from the same coast is a group of isles, which are noted on account of the valuable slates which they produce. The principal of them is Esdale or Easdale. It is advantageously situated within a few minutes sailing to every vessel that passes through the Sound of Mull round the western coast of Scotland, whether bound for the Baltic, Ireland, Leith, or London. A fine bridge has lately been built, which connects the island with the main land. The island is nearly circular, about one mile and a half in diameter; and is celebrated for its having afforded the best and greatest quantity of slate of any spot of equal extent in Great Britain. The slate occupies the whole island, traversed at many places with basaltic veins and thin layers of quartzoze and calcareous stones. The slate has been quarried here upward of a hundred years.

15. *Scarba* is a lofty islet five miles long, chiefly covered with heath, and little cultivated.

16, 17, 18. *Lunga, Balnanaigh, Shuna.*—Adjoining to Scarba is Lunga, which is not so mountainous, and is about two miles long and half a mile broad. Balnanaigh is about a mile in circumference, and is all a slate quarry. This quarry has been worked for many years back, and found to yield very good slate. Shuna and the other neighbouring small isles abound in strata of slate.

19. *Jura.*—Jura, the most rugged of the Hebrides, is about thirty-four miles long and ten broad, and composed of vast mountains naked and incapable of cultivation. As might be expected from its sterility, it is scantily peopled. About 400 head of cattle are annually sold to graziers: a few sheep are bred which have good fleeces, and a considerable number of goats. It produces some corn for the consumption of its inhabitants, but their chief diet is potatoes and fish. Much of the land, even where capable of improvement, is in a state of nature. The most singular features of this island are the paps of Jura, round insulated mountains formed of vast masses of stone, covered with moss at bottom, but bare at their summits. One of these, but not the most lofty, is 2,350 feet high. The surface of the island is varied with several lakes, and its coast affords two or three bays or anchoring places. The air is peculiarly salubrious.

North of Jura is a tremendous whirlpool called Corryvrechan, a vortex about a mile in diameter, in which, during flood, the

the ſea rages with a horrible degree of fury; but at low water it may be croſſed without danger.

20, 21. *Colonſa* and *Oronſa*.—Theſe are two iſles united by a ſand-bank, which is covered only at the time of flood. Colonſa lies two leagues north from Ila; it is four miles long and one mile broad, not ſo fruitful as Oronſa; it has one church and two ruinous chapels; and ſome freſh-water lakes defended by forts and full of trouts. Oronſa is four miles in circumference, and is fruitful in corn and graſs; chiefly inhabited by the Macduffs, and has a church and chapel upon it. Both theſe iſlands conſiſt of rocky ridges intermixed with verdant valleys and ravines affording paſturage, and the hills have ſome ſpots of excellent herbage. Above two hundred head of cattle are annually exported. Kelp to the quantity of forty or fifty tons is yearly made on the ſhores.

22. *Ila* or *Iſlay*.—This iſland is ſituated about ſix leagues from the north coaſt of Ireland, and four from the coaſt of Argyle county. The form is irregular, perhaps not very unlike a horſe-ſhoe with the toe part pointed, being hollowed towards the ſouth by a large bay called *Loch Indaal*. The circumference about fifty miles. It is ſeparated from Jura by a narrow ſtrait, to which it gives the name of Sound. The face of the country is hilly, particularly on the north-eaſt; on the other ſide the land is in many parts excellent, but ſtill remains almoſt in a ſtate of nature. It produces corn of different kinds, except wheat, and much flax. The people miſerably poor, inhabiting wretched huts compoſed of looſe ſtones, and growing ſcarcely ſufficient corn for their own conſumption. It contains ſome mines of lead mixed with copper: ſtrata of iron called *bog ore*, with veins of emery. In ſome places ſmall veins of quickſilver have been found. Great numbers of cattle are bred, and many annually exported. In the centre of it lies Loch Finlagan, three miles in circumference, full of fine ſalmon, trouts, and eels; and in it is an iſland on which are ſtill to be ſeen the ruins of the royal palace of Macdonald, king of the Iſles, who reſided here, and made it the ſeat of his government. Ila has ſeveral freſh-water lakes with forts upon them, and a medicinal ſpring which the natives make uſe of for all diſeaſes; but the greateſt curioſity are the ſubterraneous caves, one of which is capable of holding two hundred men. There are four churches and a chapel upon Ila, the chief of which is dedicated to St. Columbus. There are ſeveral very ſmall iſles near Ila, but they are of too little importance to be deſcribed.

23. *Gigha* is ſix miles long and one broad. It is low, and its ſoil a mixture of rich paſture and arable land, producing barley,

barley, bear, oats, flax, and potatoes. The natives, who in ſummer engage in the herring fiſhery, are poor, and many have emigrated to America. It contains no wood except a few juniper buſhes. It has, however, a medicinal well, ſaid to be good againſt all diſeaſes; and the ſoil, or rather the ſtones, of this iſland produce corker, which dies a crimſon colour, and croſtil, which dies a philamote.

24. *Cary.*—Cloſe along the ſouth ſide of this iſland lies the Iſle of Cary, about a mile in compaſs, on which are good paſturage and a vaſt quantity of rabbits.

25. *Sanda.*—The ſmall iſland of Sanda is ſituated adjacent to the Mull of Kintyre, or ſouthern part of that peninſula. It is above a mile and a half in length and half a mile in breadth; famed as the place of rendezvous for the Daniſh fleet in their excurſions to theſe coaſts. Hence it went under the name of *Avona Porticoſa*, and is ſtill ſometimes called Avon. Sanda, however, is the more ancient as well as the common name. In this iſland are the remains of an old popiſh chapel. There are alſo two other ſmall iſlands at the eaſt ſide of Sanda, well calculated for keeping ſheep. In the Sound of Sanda, which is a league diſtant from the continent, there is plenty of cod.

BUTE-SHIRE.

THE remainder of the Hebrides or Weſtern Iſles are comprehended under the ſhire of Bute. This ſmall ſhire or county ſends a member to parliament alternately with Caithneſs. It conſiſts of the iſlands of Bute and Arran, together with the ſmall iſles called greater and leſſer Cumbray, and Inchmarnoch.

Bute.—The iſland of Bute is ſituated in the Frith of Clyde; and veſſels from the Atlantic, entering that river, paſs along the eaſtern ſide of the iſland. Bute is ſeparated from the diſtrict of Cowal in Argyleſhire by a long and narrow channel of half a mile in breadth. The longitudinal extent of Bute from north to ſouth is about eighteen miles; its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt about five miles; but ſome large bays entering deep into its area, render its line of circumference irregular. Bute contains a royal borough, Rothſay. The town is excellently ſituated for trade, having a fine harbour at the bottom of an extenſive bay on the north-weſt ſide of the iſland, in which there is ſafe anchorage. In the ſouthern part of the iſland many rocks form baſaltic pillars. Abundance of ſlate is found in the iſland, and great quantities are exported.

Inchmarnoch.

Inchmarnoch.—On the weſtern ſide of Bute is Inchmarnoch, ſo called from St. Marnoch. The ruins of a chapel are to be ſeen on it, where (according to Fordun) had been a cell of monks. The extent of this little iſle is about a mile; it has 120 acres of arable land, 40 of bruſhwood, near 300 of moor, and has a vaſt ſtratum of coral and ſhells on the weſt ſide. The ſurface of the iſland is beautifully diverſified with hill and dale.

Arran.—The iſland of Arran lies to the ſouth-weſt of Bute, in the mouth of the Frith of Clyde, directly oppoſite to Loch Fyne, at the diſtance of five miles ſouth from the diſtrict of Cowal in Argyleſhire, nearly ten miles ſouth-weſt from Bute; from Lochryan in Galloway about fifteen leagues north-weſt. In length this iſland may be from twenty-four to thirty miles, extending between north and ſouth. Its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt exceeds fourteen miles. Its ſurface is almoſt every where rugged and mountainous. The lakes are Loch Yirſa, where ſalmon come to ſpawn; Loch Tana; Loch-na-h-jura, on the top of a high hill; Loch Mhaclirai; and Loch Knock, or Charbeil, full of large eels. The chief rivers are; Abhan-Mhor, Moina-Mhor, Slaodira-Machrai, and Torſa. The laſt two remarkable for the abundance of ſalmon. The climate is very ſevere: for, beſides the violence of winds, the cold is very rigorous, and the ſnow lies here in the vallies ſometimes for thirteen weeks of the winter.

Cumbray-more.—The greater Cumbray is diſtant about two miles from Ayrſhire and three miles from Bute. It is ſeparated from the little Cumbray upon the ſouth by a channel of three quarters of a mile broad. The length of the iſland from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt is two miles and a half; the breadth from eaſt to weſt about one mile and a half. The ſurface contains about 2,300 acres, one third of which is, or might be, cultivated. Here is a commodious dry harbour, where in ſpring-tides there is water to the height of eleven feet. There is alſo a ſafe anchorage ſheltered by a rocky iſlet. There is plenty of limeſtone, and an inexhauſtible fund of excellent freeſtone. There are two rocks on the eaſt ſide of the iſland which have joints and ſeams like the baſaltic rocks of Staffa, but are not ſo regularly columnar.

Little Cumbray is about a mile in length and half a mile in breadth. The ſtrata of rocks are horizontal; and as they recede from the ſhore, they riſe above each other like ſtairs. There are ſeveral caves in the iſland, and an old fortreſs. Upon the higheſt part of the iſland a light-houſe was erected in the year 1750; but, as from its elevated ſituation the light was liable to be obſcured in fogs, another, with a reflector, was lately

lately erected upon a lower ſtation. The whole iſland belongs to the Earl of Eglintoun.

The population of the ſhire of Bute is 11,791 perſons; they have 1,928 houſes.

The Orkneys.

The Orkney and Shetland Iſles form together one county, which ſends a repreſentative to the Britiſh parliament. We ſhall conſider firſt the Orkneys, and afterwards the more northern group called the Shetland Iſles. The iſlands ſtyled by the moderns the Orkneys, are ſituated in the Northern Ocean, between the coaſt of Caithneſs and Shetland; from the former of which they are diſtant only about four, and from the latter nearly twenty leagues.

Theſe iſlands became diſtinctly known to the learned world during the firſt century. They were at leaſt diſcovered, if they were not ſubdued, by the Roman fleet which circumnavigated the Britiſh iſland in Agricola's memorable campaign, A. D. 84: and even Thulè was, in that voyage, deſcried, which had hitherto been hid amidſt eternal ſnows. The name of Orcades formed a claſſic term during claſſical times. The iſlands and their appellation became familiar to the Romans from their communications with the Celtic inhabitants of Britain, before the Scandinavian rovers appeared in the Britiſh ſeas. There is reaſon to believe that the Orkney Iſles were planted during early ages by the poſterity of the ſame people who ſettled weſtern Europe. The ſtone monuments which ſtill remain plainly eſtabliſh that obſcure truth; yet, owing probably to ſome phyſical cauſe, the original people ſeem to have diſappeared in ſome period of a prior date to our common era.

During the efflux of two centuries, thoſe deſert iſles became the harbours of the ferocious ſeamen of northern Europe. In 366, the great Theodoſius purſued the Saxon fleet into the uſual haunts of thoſe enterprizing pirates; and he is ſaid, in the language of panegyric, to have ſtained the Orkneys with the bloody ſtreams of Saxons ſlain. The Orkneys were ſettled by the Scandinavians before the age of Columba, who found one of their chiefs at the reſidence of Bridei the Pictiſh king; and who ſent his miſſionaries to illuminate the darkneſs of thoſe benighted iſlands. Chriſtianity was at this period introduced among them by Saint Columba.

Soon after the year 875, Harold Harfagre having united the

ſeveral provinces of Norway by a naval victory, purſued the fugitives into Shetland and Orkney, ſubdued the iſlanders, and there eſtabliſhed the authority of his vigorous government. His whole power the conqueror delegated to Sigurd, the ſon of Eyſtain and brother of Rognwald, who is praiſed by Wormius as a poet: him, Harold created the firſt earl of the Orcadian dynaſty, and after him a long ſucceſſion of earls enſued, who, amid their diſſenſions and piracies, probably yielded but ſlight ſubjection to the Norwegian kings. It was an age of barbariſm, when protection could only be gained by ſlavery, and wealth could moſt eaſily be obtained by plunder. Torf-Eyner, who ruled the Orkneys about the year 930, firſt taught them the uſe of turf for fuel during the ſcarcity of wood. In 980, the Orkney men were converted to the Chriſtian faith, which had been early intimated to them by the zealous Columbans, and at length perfected by Saint Magnus. Shetland and Orkney continued in ſubjection to Norway till the year 1468, when James III. gained, by the gentle mode of marriage, what he could not have acquired by the rough means of war: a prudent union which this prince effected with the Princeſs of Denmark gave him poſſeſſion of theſe iſles, and they were annexed to the crown by act of parliament.

The Orkney Iſlands are ſixty-ſeven in number, twenty-eight of which are inhabited; the remaining thirty-nine, known under the name of *holms*, are dedicated to the paſturing of a few cattle, ſheep, or rabbits, and are in general too ſmall and too much expoſed to the violence of the weather to be fit for human habitation.

It would be uſeleſs to give a minute account of each of theſe iſles. Some of the principal alone will be noticed.

Mainland, or *Pomona*.—This iſland is in the centre of the group; and the remaining iſlands receive the appellation of north or ſouth iſles from their poſition with regard to it. The Mainland, from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, extends not leſs than thirty Engliſh miles, and diſplays conſiderable variety of appearance. A ridge of hills, of no great height, riſes on its eaſtern extremity, and ſtretches weſtward, with ſome interruptions, to a conſiderable diſtance; after which it turns northward, nearly at right angles, ſo as to run parallel to the weſtern boundary of the iſland, from which it is diſtant about ſix miles. Along the weſtern boundary run the hills of Stromneſs and Sandwick. Through this extenſive tract the hills are generally green on the ſides, many parts of which are productive when cultivated. The tops are covered with a mixture of heath and various

various ſorts of graſs, and afford a ſecure haunt for multitudes of moor-fowl, as well as paſture for ſheep, black cattle, and horſes. The breadth of the Mainland is by no means conſiderable; for though it reaches nearly ſixteen miles on the weſt ſide, the eaſt does not extend above five or ſix; and near the middle it is ſo narrow as to form a neck of land which comprehends little more than a mile in length, dividing the iſland into two peninſulas. The ſpacious and beautiful bay of Scalpa bounds the one ſide of this iſthmus, and the bay of Kirkwall the other; and the ground that lies between them is at once ſo flat, ſo damp, and in other reſpects of ſuch a nature as to render it probable that the ſea, ſome time or other, has occupied the whole ſpace between them. To the eaſtward of the bay of Kirkwall is the bay of Inganeſs. Advancing from the north, it is ſo well ſheltered from the weſt winds as to render it an extremely commodious retreat for ſhipping. Another bay to the eaſtward advances inland and forms a large territory, or pariſh of Deerneſs, into a peninſula. This bay is alſo well calculated to afford a retreat for ſhipping. In this caſtern part of the iſland the ſoil is in general thin, and the cultivated land lies in a declivity to the ſouth. The houſes of the peaſantry, however, are neatly built, and their ſmall gardens are uſually in good order. In the weſtern part of the Mainland is the great loch of Stennis, riſing at the head of the bay of Kerſton, which proceeds from the ſouth. The tide in ſome meaſure alternately fills and almoſt empties it. Its direction is toward the north-weſt to the extent of five miles. Trout, flounders, and other kinds of fiſh are found in it. The village of Stromneſs is on the ſouth-weſt quarter of the Mainland. It would appear that deer have once inhabited this iſland, as their horns have ſometimes been dug up; and, both from tradition and from the roots of trees and hazle nuts which are frequently dug up, there ſeems reaſon to believe that at ſome diſtant period it was not deſtitute of woods.

Kirkwall, the only royal borough in theſe iſlands, and the chief town of the county or ſtewartry of Orkney, is ſituated on the Mainland or Pomona. It is built on a neck of land waſhed on one ſide by the road and bay of Kirkwall, and on the other by a pleaſant inlet of the ſea which flows by the back of the gardens at high water. It is nearly a mile long, but is of inconſiderable breadth, having only one ſtreet running the whole length, very inconvenient from its narrowneſs and the badneſs of the pavement; and toward the ſtreet the ends or gables of the houſes are placed, which gives it an awkward appearance. Several of the gentlemen of property reſide here, and a conſiderable number of ſhopkeepers; but the body of

the people is compoſed of tradeſmen, boatmen, ſervants, and day labourers. The government is in the hands of a provoſt, four magiſtrates, a dean of guild, treaſurer, and fifteen other members, who together compoſe a council that meets at Michaelmas every year for the purpoſe of alternately electing and being elected; and at other times to collect and diſpenſe the public funds, and tranſact the other branches of the buſineſs of the community. Kirkwall and the four northern boroughs, Wick, Dornoch, Tain, and Dingwall, jointly chooſe a burgeſs to repreſent them in the Britiſh parliament. In this town the ſheriff, the admiral, the commiſſary, and juſtice of peace courts, are occaſionally convened for the adminiſtration of juſtice; and for the cognizance and regulation of eccleſiaſtical matters, the three preſbyteries of which the provincial ſynod is compoſed, and alſo the ſynod itſelf, meet at leaſt once a year, or oftener according to circumſtances. Here is alſo a cuſtom-houſe and poſt-office, and a ſtore-houſe, into which are collected the rents, that are moſtly paid in kind of both the biſhopric and earldom, which are generally let on leaſe to merchants, who ſometimes diſpoſe of them here, ſometimes ſend them out of the country. The town-houſe is ſupported on pillars forming a piazza in front, and in every reſpect a neat and commodious building; the firſt ſtory of which is divided into apartments for a common priſon, the ſecond for an aſſembly-hall, with a large adjoining room for the courts of juſtice, and the higheſt is ſet apart as a lodge for the accommodation of the ancient fraternity of free-maſons. To the weſt of this, and at no great diſtance, are the ſchool-houſes, in which are taught the ſeveral branches of Engliſh education, Latin, Greek, and mathematics. For nothing, however, is the town more celebrated than for its excellent harbour, broad, ſafe, and capacious, with a bottom of clay ſo firm, and a depth of water ſo convenient, as to afford anchorage for ſhips of a large ſize and in great numbers.

As reliques of antiquity, the ruins known by the names of the King's Caſtle, the Biſhop's Palace, and the Cathedral of St. Magnus, are entitled to notice.

Græmſay.—Græmſay is one of the ſouthern iſlands about a mile and a half ſouth-eaſt from Stromneſs. It extends from eaſt to weſt about a mile and a half, and about a mile in breadth. The whole is level and the ſoil good; being either uſed for corn or ſuffered to remain in old graſs. In the interior parts a bed of ſlate ſupports the thin ſurface.

Hoy.—Another inhabited iſland is Hoy, ſeparated from Græmſay by a ſtrait of a mile in breadth. It conſiſts of the higheſt land in Orkney. Almoſt the whole of it is occupied by

by three large hills in the form of a triangle, of which that to the north-eaſt is the largeſt. Except along the north ſhores, which are bordered with a loamy ſoil and a rich verdure, the iſland has a ſoil compoſed of peat and clay, of which the former commonly predominates, black, wet, and ſpongy. This ſeems to ariſe from a greater quantity of rain falling here than in many other parts of the country. The iſland is chiefly appropriated to the paſture of ſheep. On the hills are many alpine plants; and among them ſome delightful vallies, interſected with rivulets, whoſe banks are decked with flowers and ſheltered with ſhrubs, ſuch as the birch, the hazel, and the currant, which are ſometimes honoured with the name of trees, becauſe in this particular ſituation they have riſen ten or twelve feet above the ground that ſupports them. The Wart or Ward hill of Hoy riſes to about a mile in height above the level of the ſea. Weſtward from this hill is a ſtupendous rock called the *Old Man of Hoy*. It riſes about 1,500 feet above the ſea, and reſembles, at a diſtance, a monſtrous ruin, from the fantaſtic manner in which its ſides and ſummit have been worn by the daſhing of the waves of a tempeſtuous ocean, or by the action of the winds in this northern climate. Hoy, in former times, produced large birch trees and white hares.

Waas.—The iſland of Waas is remarkable on account of its excellent harbours, called Orchope, Kirkhope, and Longhope. It is adjacent to the Pentland Frith. It is in truth a diſtrict of Hoy, or peninſula connected with it by a narrow neck of land, and forms the ſouthern part of that iſland.

Ruſſay, Farray, Cavay, Flotay.—Ruſſay, Farray, and Cavay are ſmall iſlands on the eaſtern ſide of Hoy, and ſupport a few perſons. Flotay is on the ſame ſide of Hoy, and is three miles long and little more than one in breadth. It has a bay called Panhope, well known to mariners. Its weſtern ſide is covered with long heath, and abounds with moor-fowl; the remainder is covered with graſs or cultivated for corn.

Ronaldſay.—South Ronaldſay is the moſt populous of the ſouthern diviſion of the iſlands. It conſiſts of about eighteen ſquare miles; and the arable and graſs lands form a larger proportion than elſewhere to the rude ordinary paſtures. Much kelp is produced on its ſhores.

Swinna.—To the ſouth-weſt of the former is Swanay, or Swinna, a ſmall iſland about a mile long and a mile and a half broad, lying nearly in the middle of the Pentland Frith. It is very barren, but is inhabited by a few families who gain a livelihood by the wages which the men receive for acting as pilots to the veſſels paſſing that dangerous ſtrait. At each ſide of it are the whirlpools called the *Wells of Swinna*, which are

chiefly dangerous in a calm. It is ſaid that, to avoid them, when a veſſel is found within the vortex, it is found neceſſary to throw out a barrel, or ſome bulky ſubſtance, at the ſtern of the veſſel, whereby to enable her to turn her ſide to the current, and thereby to ſtand out of it. In a quick breeze of wind the pools may be paſſed with little danger. Indeed, theſe currents ſeem, like Scylla and Charybdis, to have been chiefly rendered formidable by ignorance. A poſt-office boat, four times in the week, croſſes the Pentland Frith from Caithneſs, and in fifty years no accident has occurred. The caſe ſeems to have been very different formerly, as it is ſaid that a Scottiſh fiſherman was impriſoned in Kirkwall, in the beginning of May, for publiſhing an account of the Revolution by which the Prince and Princeſs of Orange were raiſed to the throne of the Britiſh iſlands in the preceding month of November; and he would have ſuffered puniſhment had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a veſſel. The truth of the ſtory, however, has of late been doubted.

Pentland Skerry.—Pentland Skerry is one of two ſmall iſlands in the Pentland Frith, inhabited by a man and his family who take care of the light-houſe; the importance of which eſtabliſhment muſt be obvious, when it is conſidered that 3,300 ſhips have paſſed this frith annually.

Burray.—Burray is ſeparated from South Ronaldſay by a ferry of a mile broad. It is nearly four miles in length and one in breadth. Potatoes, carrots, peas, onions, cabbage, and turnip, are raiſed here in greater perfection than in the other iſlands; and white and red clover abound in the natural paſtures.

Lamon.—Lamon is a ſmall iſland between Burray and the Mainland. It contains only one family.

Copinſay.—Copinſay, to the eaſtward of the Mainland, forms an excellent land-mark for ſhips. It preſents a bold perpendicular front to the German Ocean on the eaſt. It is about a mile in length and half a mile in breadth, and contains two or three families, who rear ſome corn.

Shapinſay.—Shapinſay is adjacent to the Mainland. On its northern ſide its ſurface amounts to about nine ſquare miles. It formerly belonged to the biſhops of Orkney. Around the whole iſland the ſhores are low, and to a conſiderable diſtance inland pretty level, and covered with graſs and corn fields. Towards the middle, the land is conſiderably higher, and exhibits the appearance of a barren waſte, fit only for ſheep paſture. A ſmall bay is called Gruculà, in conſequence, according to tradition, of one of Agricola's ſhips having been ſtranded here. In fact, ſome Roman coins have been lately

found near the place. Its only harbour is that of Elwick. About 120 tons of kelp are annually burned on its ſhores.

Stronſay.—Stronſay is a pretty large iſland, rather flat, ſituated to the eaſt of the former, from which it is divided by a rapid frith of the ſame name, ſix miles wide. On that quarter it bounds the group of the Orkney iſlands. From an inſpection of the map, it appears not only to be curiouſly indented, but almoſt cut into three diſtinct iſlands, which were formerly ſo many ſeparate pariſhes; and this interſection has probably given riſe to the name conferred on it by the ancients, of the *Iſle of Strand*, or *Stronſay*. Its dimenſions are ſeven miles long and four broad; through the whole it diſcovers much variety in point of ſoil and elevation; and while it equals ſeveral of the reſt in the production of the fruits of the earth, it enjoys one advantage over them in its very convenient ſituation for an extenſive and lucrative fiſhery. This advantage, however much deſpiſed at preſent, ſeems to have attracted attention in former times, when the iſland was conſidered as of more conſequence, on account of its extenſive intercourſe with the eaſt in the flouriſhing ſtate of the herring fiſhery, a pretty extenſive one being then carried on in that iſland. The exact ſhare which the inhabitants had in that buſineſs cannot be now aſcertained, but it was probably not very great, as moſt of the operations were performed by people from the county of Fife, who being called home in the commotions that then ſhook the kingdom, all fell in the battle of Kilſyth; and this circumſtance unfortunately put an end to that promiſing ſpecies of induſtry. The iſland has two harbours, or rather places of retreat, for ſhips; Linga Sound on the weſt, and Papay Sound on the north-eaſt.

Papay.—Papay Stronſay is a pleaſant little level iſland, of about three miles in circuit, on the north-eaſt of the former.

Eday.—Eday is nearly in the centre of the north iſles. It is about five miles and a half long, and nearly one and a half broad. It conſiſts chiefly of hills of a moderate height, affording excellent paſture. It poſſeſſes two good harbours or road-ſteads, each ſheltered by a ſmall iſlet, where veſſels of any burden may ride in ſafety. The one is called Calf Sound, and the other Fierſneſs.

Farey.—Farey is a ſmall iſland, about two miles in length and one in breadth, rather flat, and covered with verdure. Beſides a very advantageous ſituation for fiſhing, it has a ſoil and ſurface more than ſufficient to raiſe both corn and cattle, in ordinary years, to anſwer every demand of the inhabitants.

Sanday.—Sanday, ſo called from the nature of its ſoil, is in extent of about twelve miles in length, varying in breadth from one mile or leſs in ſome places, to two or three in others. Its form is very irregular, having many extended points, with bays running a conſiderable way inland. It lies to the north-eaſt of the iſles of Eday and Stronſay, from which it is ſeparated by a channel from two to three miles broad. The ſurface is low and flat, particularly on the eaſt coaſt, which not only renders the coaſt dangerous to mariners, but ſubjects the iſland to inundation from a ſpring-tide with a gale of eaſterly wind. The ſoil is every where mixed with ſand, and when well manured with ſea-ware produces as good crops as any iſland in the Orkneys. The making of kelp is the chief employment of the people during the ſummer; and no iſland of the Orkneys, of the ſame extent of ſea-coaſt, produces an equal quantity with this iſland. It generally produces 500 or 600 tons; and 620 tons have been made in a ſeaſon. The two principal harbours are Kettletofet on the ſouth, and Otterſwick on the north ſide of the iſland, both pretty ſafe and commodious.

North Ronaldſay is ſituated to the north of Sanday, at the diſtance of two miles, and divided from it by a very rapid and dangerous frith. It contains about four ſquare miles. It is little raiſed above the level of the ſea; and at leaſt 100 tons of kelp are annually manufactured on the ſhore.

Weſtray.—Weſtray is of more importance. It lies on the north-weſt quarter of the whole iſlands. In form it reſembles a croſs, the body of which is eight, and it's arms about five miles in length. Through this whole extent, which ſtretches from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, it forms a ridge, low on the ſhores and gently elevated towards the middle; and from ſouth to north, on the weſt ſide, a range of pretty high hills forms its boundary in that direction. The cultivated lands and the principal graſs paſtures are on the eaſt end, and on the north and ſouth ſhores; a large portion of them is on the ſouth-weſt, where both of them are uncommonly fine; and as the waſte land lies in the middle of theſe tracts, what is on the weſt and on the north-weſt is inferior neither in quantity nor quality. The iſland contains abundance of peat for fuel. Much corn is raiſed, but of an indifferent quality; but the graſs is good; and in the boiſterous ſeas around it, abundance of fiſh are found. On the eaſt and ſouth are two bays, to which ſhips retire in ſummer; but the only ſafe harbour is called Pier-o-wall, on the north-weſt; and this is fit for ſmall veſſels only. Formerly it afforded accommodation for ſhips of much greater burden, and it is ſheltered in all directions; but from

from the blowing of the ſand, which of late has been very great, the water has become ſo ſhallow, that ſhips which have occaſion to put in here are compelled to anchor in a more open road farther out in the harbour. The blowing of the ſand has alſo ſpread deſolation over ſome of the moſt beautiful and beſt land not only in this iſland but alſo in Sanday.

Papay Weſtray. — Papay Weſtray is a beautiful little iſland to the north of the former. It is four miles long and about one mile broad. It is pleaſant and fertile, and abounds with fine natural clover. A lake of freſh water adorns its ſouth-eaſt corner.

Egleſhay. — Egleſhay is about ſix miles ſouth of Weſtray, and divided from it by a tempeſtuous frith. It is about two miles long and one broad; and in this part of the world is accounted ſo beautiful, as to have been choſen as a place of reſidence by ſome of the ancient counts and biſhops of Orkney.

Ronſay. — Ronſay lies to the north-weſt of the Mainland, and is about nine miles long and four broad. The greateſt part of it is hill-ground, but it has ſome ſtripes of arable land on the coaſt. It has ſeveral ſmall lakes, which give riſe to a number of rivulets. It has ſeveral ſafe harbours, and is accounted one of the moſt agreeable of the Orkney Iſles.

Weir. — Weir is divided from Ronſay by Weir Sound, which is one of the beſt retreats for ſhipping in the diſtrict. The iſland is two miles long and one broad, and lies comparatively low. It has abundance of turf for fuel, but its ſoil is poor.

En-hallow. — En-hallow is only about a mile in circumference. It is ſeparated from Ronſay by a reef of rocks, which is covered at high water, and therefore dangerous. It contains two families, who ſay that neither rats, mice, nor cats will live in it.

Gairſay. — Gairſay is a mile from the Mainland, and two miles ſouth from Weir. It is two miles long and one broad; conſiſting chiefly of a hill that is ſteep on the weſt ſide, but gradually declines, forming a tolerably fertile diſtrict on the eaſt. It has a harbour, called Milbourn, on this laſt ſide.

Darnſay. — Darnſay is about three miles from Kirkwall. It is ſcarcely a mile in circuit, and is covered with a thick ſward of fine graſs, which is uſed for the paſturage of ſheep.

Property in land is held in the Orkneys in a variety of forms, which may be reduced to three: 1. *King's lands*, which had formerly belonged to the earls of Orkney, but which had been, in proceſs of time, feued out or granted in perpetuity

to

to vaſſals, who became bound to pay for ever the old rents, which were uſually taken in kind, on account of the ſcarcity of money. 2. *Kirk lands*, or thoſe which anciently belonged to the biſhops and clergy of Orkney, and which are now held by private perſons, to whoſe anceſtors they had been granted in feu or perpetuity, for payment in kind of the old rents. And, laſtly, there are *udal lands*, or lands held without any written charters. This tenure occurs no where elſe in the Scottiſh territory, excepting in Orkney and Shetland, and in the four towns of Lochmaben. It would appear that the feudal ſyſtem had never fully penetrated to theſe northern iſlands. At the ſame time, the Udallers are few in number; ſome of them pay a ſmall rent to the crown or church, and ſome pay to neither.

The weighing inſtruments of this territory are reckoned among its grievances. They were brought from Norway at a very early period. The ſmalleſt of theſe weights, or the one of the loweſt denomination, is the mark; twenty-four marks make a ſetteen, or liſpund, or pund byſmer, or ſpan; all of which are equivalent and convertible terms; and though the three latter are now obſolete, they were commonly uſed in the laſt age. Six ſetteens or liſpunds make a meil, and twenty-four meils a laſt. The weighing inſtruments, which are of the ſame extraction, are the byſmer and pundler; on the former of which are reckoned marks and ſetteens or liſpunds, and on the latter ſetteens or meils. The original ſtandards of theſe have been long loſt or deſtroyed; and hence they are fluctuating, and in ſome meaſure arbitrary. But what is more extraordinary, a ſetteen or liſpund, on the byſmer, is different from a ſetteen on the pundler; and all the marks on the former, and the ſetteen on the latter, are intirely different from one another. This occaſions ſome particular weights on each of theſe inſtruments to be moſt advantageous to the ſeller, as others are to the buyer; and this being known only to thoſe who are much in the practice of weighing, not only ſtrangers, but alſo the bulk of the people, are unable to guard themſelves againſt impoſition.

The produce of theſe iſlands in grain is inconſiderable. The gardens afford eſculent vegetables, and ſome of the minor fruits as currants, but the larger and more highly flavoured, as apples, pears, and plums do not attain perfection. The coaſts and freſh waters abound with fiſh, and when induſtry ſhall be ſtimulated by capital, it is probable that the produce of the ocean may be rendered extremely beneficial. The common frog and the toad are the only reptiles found in theſe iſlands.

The

The domeſtic birds are dunghill fowl, turkeys, and ſometimes peacocks; which laſt are at times reared about gentlemen's houſes. Ducks and geeſe are every where reared in vaſt numbers. The wild birds, both migratory and indigenous, are very numerous. Falcons and eagles are the moſt deſtructive; partridges have been introduced, but periſhed; the magpye is never ſeen there; and if the rook appear, it is ſuppoſed to portend a famine. The natives are very dexterous in catching the various ſorts of aquatic fowl.

The quadrupeds are, the ſhrew-mouſe, the mouſe, the ſhort tailed field-mouſe or vole-mouſe, the field-mouſe, the brown or Norwegian rat, the common black rat, the rabbit, the ſeal or ſelchy, the otter, the cat, the dog, the hog, the ſheep, the ox, and the horſe. The brown or Norwegian rat has been introduced by the ſhipping that frequent the iſlands. It has nearly baniſhed the common black rat. The brown rat infeſts houſes, barns, hen roofts, rabbit warrens, and in ſome inſtances, even church-yards. Its ſtrength is great. From the tip of the noſe to the point of the tail is eighteen inches. Its legs are firm, and its claws and fore-teeth ſharp. It ſwims and dives readily. Even when attacked by man it diſcovers no great alarm. Rabbits ſo much abound here that their ſkins form a conſiderable commerce. Their colour is brown; an entirely white one is rare. They feed on corn and graſs, and ſometimes on ſea-weeds and the roots of vegetables. Hawks, eagles, dogs, cats, and otters, prey upon them; yet they multiply prodigiouſly. No hares, however, exiſt in theſe iſlands, becauſe from want of woods, and their incapacity of retreating into the earth like rabbits, they find no refuge from their numerous enemies. The ſeal is very common in the ſmall iſlands or holms. Some of them meaſure eight or nine feet from the point of the noſe to the claws of the hind legs; and at the ſhoulders they are nearly as much in circumference. For their ſkins and oil they are ſhot, caught in nets, or knocked down with clubs. Hams made of young ſeals are thought tolerable by the natives. Dogs are here of conſiderable importance. To a little farmer a dog is more valuable than a horſe or a cow, becauſe he has no other mode of protecting his corn. The ſpecies of hog reared here is ſmall, the colour variable, black, brown, dirty white, and tawny; the back highly arched, and covered with a great quantity of long ſtiff briſtles; the ears erect and ſharp pointed; the noſe amazingly ſtrong. Its awkward ſhape and ugly appearance ſhow it to be different from what are met with in almoſt every part of the kingdom. They are in general as lean as they are ugly, having only a very poor paſture; but when put up to be fed,

and

and furniſhed with ſuitable provender, they in a ſhort time, and at little expence, acquire fleſh which for delicacy and flavour, is much eſteemed. Even the hair of theſe animals is an article of conſiderable value, in as far as it ſerves as a ſubſtitute for hemp in making ropes to anchor fiſhing-boats; for confining in the fields horſes and cattle; and for binding about the middle, men, in order to let them down in ſafety to rob the neſts, and catch the young, of ſuch birds as build on the ſhelves of the rock.

The manufactures of theſe iſland are not great. Woollen cloth, blankets, and ſtockings are made in ſmall portions and of a coarſe texture; linen is produced in greater quantity, and of better quality; but the principal manufacture of the Orkneys, and which greatly exceeds all others in point of importance, is that of kelp, which is a thriving and profitable undertaking.

There are in theſe iſlands 24,445 people, inhabiting 4,550 houſes.

The Shetland Islands.

The Shetland Iſlands conſiſt of about ſeventeen which are inhabited, and a number of leſſer ones called, as in Orkney, *Holms*, dedicated to the feeding of cattle, ſheep, &c.

The political hiſtory and preſent ſituation of both theſe cluſters of iſlands, with regard to the tenures by which landed property is held, is the ſame. The Shetland have in all ages followed the deſtiny of the Orkney Iſles.

Mainland.—The principal iſland is here, as in Orkney, called the Mainland, and bears a larger proportion to the whole territory than in Orkney. The Mainland is no leſs than 60 miles in length from north to ſouth, and in ſome places it is upwards of twelve miles in breadth. It projects into the ſea with a vaſt multitude of irregular promontories; and is on all ſides ſo deeply indented with numerous bays and harbours that no part of it lies above three miles from the ſea. Thus the territory may be conſidered as wholly maritime. The next iſland in point of magnitude is the iſland of Yell, which lies to the northward of the Mainland. It is twenty miles long and nearly twelve broad. The coaſt is bold and rocky, interſected by ſeveral bays, or as they are here called, *Voes*, which form ſafe harbours. The chief of theſe are called *Hauma Voe*, *Burra Voe*, and *Mid Yell Voe*. The ſurface is pretty level, with ſeveral ſmall lakes, which are the ſources of a few rivulets.

Lerwick,

Lerwick, ſituated on the Mainland, is the capital of the Iſles, and the ſeat of the courts held by the ſheriff-depute or ſteward-depute. The town ſtands on the ſpacious harbour called Lerwick, or Breſſay ſound, and derives its only conſequence from the courts of law, and the reſort of the veſſels employed in the whale fiſhery, which make this bay the place of their rendezvous. Near the north end of the town is a ſmall fortification, called Fort Charlotte, which commands the north entry to Breſſay ſound; and is garriſoned by a ſmall detachment of invalids. The town is about half a mile in length, and irregularly built, but contains ſome good houſes, with a ſmall, polite and hoſpitable ſociety. In Breſſay ſound, or Lerwick harbour, veſſels well found may ride at all ſeaſons in perfect ſafety; and what renders this harbour particularly commodious, is its having two entries, one from the ſouth and another from the north. On the outſide of the north entry lies a ſunk rock, called the Unicorn. When the Earl of Bothwell fled to Shetland, the Unicorn man of war was diſpatched in purſuit of him. On the appearance of the Unicorn, his ſhip, then lying in the Breſſay ſound, was got immediately under weigh, and ſailed out of the north entry, followed hard by the other; and having a pilot on board, got to ſea, by which means he made his eſcape, and landed at Norway; while the chaſing ſhip was wrecked on that rock, which has ever ſince been called the Unicorn. Scallaway, which ſtands alſo upon the Mainland, is more ancient than Lerwick, but it is an extremely trifling village.

Unſt. — Unſt is the moſt northern of the Shetland Iſles, and the moſt northern territory belonging to the Britiſh empire; and for that reaſon may be accounted deſerving of ſpecial notice. Its form is of an irregular oblong figure. In compariſon with the other Shetland Iſles, Unſt is reckoned level, yet its ſurface is diverſified by ſeveral extenſive and moderately high hills. Vallafiel, riſing within a mile and a half of its ſouthern extremity, runs in a direction parallel to the weſtern coaſt, and under different names, to the very northern point. Saxaforth, a hill of conſiderable height, and the higheſt in the iſland, lies toward its northern end. Croſsfield ſtands nearly in the middle, and at right angles to Vallafield. Vordhill ſtretches out parallel to the eaſt coaſt. Tracts of level ground are interſperſed among theſe hills. The higheſt of the hills are ſtill covered with moſs or black peat earth to the depth of ſome feet. On ſuch as are lower (and there are ſeveral beſides theſe which have been enumerated) the moſſes have been exhauſted, and the bare rocks appear here and there through a thin layer of mould covered with a green dry ſward,

which

which yields excellent paſture. The hill of Saxaforth is not leſs than 700 feet high, and may be ſeen fourteen leagues off the coaſt. Vallafield riſes to the height of 600 feet. The iſland is interſected by no rivers, but contains (in proportion to its extent at leaſt) many freſh-water lakes. Loch Cliff is two miles long, and nearly half a mile broad. The ſcenery is pleaſant along its banks. A chain of ſmaller lochs runs from Cliff to the ſouthern end of the iſland. The ſea-coaſt of Unſt being broken and indented by ſo many bays and creeks, its extent cannot be eaſily aſcertained; nor has any accurate meaſurement of it been yet attempted. Several iſlets are ſcattered here and there around it. All the ſhores expoſed to the main ocean, but eſpecially the headlands, riſe to the height of 60 or 70 fathoms. The ſhores of the bays and harbours again are low, ſhelving, and ſandy. The longeſt day in the iſland of Unſt is nineteen hours fifteen minutes, and of conſequence the ſhorteſt day is four hours and forty-five minutes.

Foula.—Foula is ſuppoſed to be the *Ultima Thule* of the ancients, not only from the mere analogy of the name, but alſo from more undoubted teſtimony; for Tacitus, ſpeaking of the Roman general Agricola, regarding his victories and the diſtance to which he penetrated northward, thus expreſſes himſelf: "Invenit domuitque inſulas quas vocant Orcades "deſpectaque Thule." Now, Foula, which is high ground, is eaſily ſeen in a clear day from the northern part of the Orkneys. It is about three miles in length, and one and a half in breadth. It is ſituated nearly twenty miles diſtant from any land to the weſtward of the cluſters of Orkney and of Shetland; to which laſt it is politically annexed. It is very bold and ſteep towards the weſt; and the only landing-place which is called Ham, lies on the eaſt ſide, and is much reſorted to as a fiſhing ſtation.

Theſe iſlands, though much neglected on account of their remote ſituation and other diſadvantages, contain nearly as much land as the Orkneys, and are computed to be nearly equal in extent to the Dutch provinces. They are not upon the whole mountainous; though at the ſame time, their ſurface is high, irregular, hilly, and covered to a great extent with moors and moſſes; and their coaſt is bold. In general, the mountains are leſs in the iſlands towards the north. In the pariſh of North Mevan, which is a peninſula belonging to the Mainland, is the higheſt hill in the iſlands. It is called Rona's Hill. It is eight miles in length and four in breadth. It was found by geometrical menſuration to be 3,944 feet above the level of the ſea.

There

There is a great diverſity of ſoil in the Shetland Iſlands; often deep moſs with a ſandy bottom; ſometimes the moſs or peat is only about a foot deep over a ſtratum of clay. That part of the land which has been longeſt under cultivation conſiſts, in general, of a mixture of clay and ſmall ſtones. When the ſubſtratum is limeſtone, the grounds are much more fertile, and the crops are earlier. It is computed that there are 25,000 acres of arable land, and about 23,000 of meadow and good paſture, in Shetland; but as theſe iſlands are only cultivated along the ſea-coaſt, the ground employed in huſbandry bears no proportion to the waſte and uncultivated parts. The only grains cultivated are that ſort of barley known under the name of bear or big, and a ſmall kind of black or grey oat.

It is well known that the domeſtic animals of this country are the ſmalleſt of any in the dominions belonging to the Britiſh crown. This is evidently owing to the ſcantineſs of their food. Neither artificial graſſes nor green crops are cultivated, nor are there any incloſures capable of protecting ſuch crops from the multitude of ſheep, cattle and horſes, which paſture on the commons in winter unattended by any herdſman. The horſes are of a very ſmall ſize, the leaſt from nine to ten hands high, the larger eleven hands. They are full of ſpirit, and can bear fatigue much better in proportion than larger horſes. They are evidently the Norway horſe, reduced in ſize by ſcanty fare. They are never put into a houſe, nor receive any food except what they gather from the ground. The cows are alſo ſmall. When fat, ſome of the cows will weigh from two to three hundred weight; but the common run is much ſmaller. The quantity of milk which theſe cows yield is not very conſiderable. The people make little cheeſe, but a great deal of butter. Great numbers of hogs are bred in Shetland. They are of a ſmaller ſize than thoſe in Scotland, and are particularly diſtinguiſhed for the ſhortneſs of their back. They are eaſily fed, and might be made of much greater uſe to the inhabitants than they are at preſent. The moſt important part of the live ſtock of theſe iſlands is their ſheep. It is now pretty clearly aſcertained, that the celebrated breed of Shetland ſheep came originally from Denmark and Norway along with the firſt adventurers, who ſettled in thoſe iſlands many centuries ago. It is calculated that there are from 110,000 to 120,000 ſheep in the Shetland Iſlands. Theſe valuable animals produce more profit with leſs trouble than any other article. Were they properly attended to, both the quantity and the value of their wool might be greatly augmented. In the report of the committee of the

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Highland Society of Scotland upon the ſubject of Shetland wool, the following remarks are made: "It would appear that the permanent fineneſs of the wool depends entirely upon the breed of ſheep; for on the ſame paſture, and in the very ſame climate, ſheep with the *fineſt* and with the *coarſeſt* wool are maintained; inſomuch that from the wool of the ſame flock, ſome ſtockings worth *two guineas per* pair, and others worth leſs than *four-pence*, are produced."

Many domeſtic and many wild fowls are found in theſe iſlands. The moſt numerous of the migratory are the kittywakes, the young of which are eſteemed very delicate food. Their neſts are placed uſually upon the heights of rocks, and on the brink of precipices ſixty or a hundred fathoms high, and in many places projecting awfully over the depth below. Although in ſituations ſeemingly ſo inacceſſible, yet theſe neſts are plundered by the inhabitants in ſpring of many of the eggs, and in Auguſt of the young fowls. The danger attending this robbery of the neſt does not deter the plunderers. They ſometimes ſail in boats to the bottom of the precipices, and climb upwards; ſometimes they approach the brink above, and let each other down by ropes. Even at night, ſo fearleſs are theſe iſlanders, they will wander among the rocks to ſurprize the old fowls upon the neſts. The female parent often exhibits, upon ſuch occaſions, remarkable proofs of natural affection, beating the invader with her wings, pecking him with her bill, and even ſuffering herſelf to be taken upon the neſt, rather than deſert the protection of her young. The eggs and carcaſes of theſe fowls form a conſiderable part of the food of the inhabitants upon theſe coaſts in the ſeaſon when they are to be obtained. The feathers are alſo an article of conſiderable value. By the police of the country, a reward of 3*s*. 4*d*. may be claimed by every perſon who kills an eagle or erne, 3*d*. for a corbie or raven, and 2*d*. for a crow. Theſe rewards are paid by the commiſſioners of the land-tax, at ſight of the heads of the fowls that have been killed.

The fiſhery is carried on with conſiderable vigour and ſucceſs. In former times, before the proprietors engaged in the fiſheries, a ſuperabundance of population was here conſidered as ruinous and burdenſome to the community; and a prohibition exiſted in the old regulations, called *Country Acts*, againſt marriage, unleſs where the young couple could ſhew they poſſeſſed 40*l*. Scots of free gear. This law is not only now neglected, but a contrary principle ſo anxiouſly purſued, that in many inſtances four families are to be found on a farm, that thirty or forty years age was poſſeſſed only by one; the great object of the proprietor being to obtain cheap ſervice in his fiſhery.

The parochial poor are not here ſupported by penſions, as in Scotland; but a pariſh is divided into diſtricts, and a certain number of the poor is baſlotted upon each. The pauper is ſent from houſe to houſe, and reſides and is ſupported a certain number of days in each houſe in ſucceſſion.

The population is 22,379 perſons of both ſexes, they have 3571 houſes.

GOVERNMENT.

The union of the crowns under James the Firſt, and the ſubſequent union of the kingdoms under Queen Anne, having made England and Scotland one realm, under one head, and ſubject to one political ſyſtem, it is not neceſſary, in a work which is not written for the purpoſe of mere reſearch into antiquity, to mark all the ſhades of difference between the ancient eſtabliſhments of the two countries. The rights conceded and the regulations eſtabliſhed at the time of the union of the kingdoms leave ample traces of the old government of Scotland, and in treating on the various parts of the modern ſyſtem, occaſional references muſt be made to remoter times; but the differences between England and Scotland were never ſo radical as to occaſion, at the union, the total abolition of any part of the political ſyſtem.

THE KING.

The origin of the Scottiſh monarchy is carried by ſome writers to an era 330 years before the birth of Jeſus Chriſt; but although a regular ſeries of names is preſerved, making 108 princes, including James the Sixth of Scotland or the Firſt of Great Britain, ſtill there are no vouchers either in enactments, buildings, or contemporary hiſtory, for the earlier monarchs of this liſt; if they reigned, their names alone are left to ſhew the fact. The origin of the Scots monarchy is by Buchanan, Leſley, and other hiſtorians, aſcribed to the choice of the chieftains or heads of tribes, who governed the people in an ariſtocratical manner, after their firſt arrival in Albion; till, being attacked by the Picts and Britons, and none of thoſe chieftains being willing to ſubmit to any of their own number, they ſent to Ireland for Fergus, ſon to King Ferquhard, to come to their aſſiſtance with troops; upon which they owned and acknowledged him king, and the crown has continued in his poſterity ever ſince. The kings of Scot-

land generally took the ſame title as thoſe of England. King Edgar of England, ſtyled himſelf Baſileus, and ſo did King Edgar of Scotland. King John of England changed the ſingular number into the plural in all public inſtruments; and ſoon after, Alexander II. of Scotland did the ſame. The common compellation of the Scottiſh kings, was *Dominus Rex*, and ſometimes *Illuſtriſſimus Dominis Ligeus*, and about James the Third's time, *Metuendiſſimus*. In ſpeaking to them they were called *Grace*, *Highneſs*, and at laſt *Majeſty*; but their ſtyles have varied in ſome reigns; for William I. had the title of *Defender of the Church* given him by the then reigning Pope; as that of *Protector of the Chriſtian Faith* was afterwards conferred on James IV., and there was no continued one peculiar to them except that of *By the Grace of God*, *King* of Scotland, or of England, France, and Ireland.

PATRIMONY. The king's ancient revenue conſiſted chiefly in crown-lands, which could not be alienated but by act of parliament, and the wardſhips and marriages of thoſe who held of the crown; but of late years moſt of the former have been given away, and the tenures of the latter changed, although there has been no general law for taking away the wards. The income of the crown, at the time of the Union, was derived principally from the cuſtoms, exciſe, and land-tax; to which the crown-lands, the poſt-office, and ſome other regal rights, made a ſmall addition.

ARMS. The royal arms of Scotland were: *Or*, a lion rampant; *Gules*, armed and langued; *Azure*, with a double teſſure, flowered and counterflowered with *flowers-de-lys* of the ſecond, encircled with the order of Scotland, the ſame being compoſed of *Rue* and *Thiſtles*, having the image of St. Andrew with his croſs on his breaſt; above the ſhield a helmet, anſwerable to his preſent majeſty's high quality and juriſdiction, with a mantle, *Or*, doubled, *Ermine*, adorned with an imperial crown, beautified with croſſes *Patée* and *flowers-de-lys*, ſurmounted on the top, for his majeſty's creſt, with a lion *Sejeant*, full faced; *Gules*, crowned; *Or*, holding in his *dexter* paw a naked ſword *proper*, and in the *ſiniſter* a ſceptre, both erected paleways, ſupported by two *Unicorns*, *Argent*, crowned with imperial and gorged with open crowns; to the laſt chains affixed, paſſing between their fore-legs, and reflexed over their backs, *Or*. He on the *dexter*, embracing and bearing up a banner of cloth of gold, charged with the royal arms of Scotland; and he on the *ſiniſter*, another banner, *Azure*, charged with *St. Andrew's* croſs, *Argent*, both ſtanding on a compartment placed underneath, from which iſſue two thiſtles, one towards each ſide of the eſcutcheon, and for his majeſty's motto,

motto, in a ſcroll above all, *In Defence;* and under, in the table of the compartment, *Nemo me impune laceſſit.* The royal badges and ordinary ſymbols of the kingdom of Scotland are a thiſtle of gold crowned. The white croſs of St. Andrew in a blue field, the ſtandard bearing.

Royal Palaces. Although the legiſlature is removed, and the ſovereign of the Britiſh dominions does not reſide in Scotland, there are ſtill ſeveral royal palaces which have their privileges, and their keepers, by being retained, keep up the dignity of the nation.

Holyrood-houſe. Of theſe the moſt conſpicuous is Holyrood-houſe; it was the reſidence of the ancient kings of Scotland, and is viewed with pride as a monument of ancient good taſte and magnificence. It ſtands at the eaſtern extremity of the city of Edinburgh, and at the bottom of that part of the High-ſtreet named the Canongate. This building has undergone various changes. The north-weſt towers were built for a royal reſidence by James the Fifth. It was afterwards burnt by the Engliſh in the minority of Queen Mary, but was ſpeedily repaired and rendered a more extenſive building than the preſent. It conſiſted of five courts; great part of theſe, however, were burnt by Cromwell's ſoldiers. It was ordered to be repaired at the Reſtoration; accordingly the principal part of the preſent fabric was deſigned by Sir William Bruce, a celebrated architect in the reign of Charles the Second, and the work was executed by Robert Mylne, who was interred and has a monument in the park adjoining to it, or rather in the burying-ground of the ancient monaſtery. The palace is a magnificent ſtone fabric, conſiſting of a ſquare on all ſides decorated with piazzas, and a ſpacious walk. The weſtern part or front conſiſts of two lofty double towers, joined by a beautiful low building or gallery, adorned with a double balluſtrade above; in the middle is a magnificent portico decorated with high ſtone columns, which ſupport a cupola in form of an imperial crown, underneath which is a clock. Above the porch or principal entry are the royal Scots arms, as borne before the Union. The other three ſides of the ſquare are lofty and noble, of three ſtories in height. The great ſtaircaſe is equal in grandeur to the reſt of the building. The gallery on the north ſide is 150 feet long; but the breadth is only 27½, and the height 18. This apartment is hung with pictures of a race of 111 monarchs through an imaginary ſeries of 2,000 years. They are of no value, and many of them are much defaced. Here alſo is the room in which the elections of the Scottiſh peerage are at preſent held. It was anciently the royal dining-room; adjoining to it is a

drawing-room and ſtate bed-chamber. The rooms are wainſcotted with oak; and the feſtoons of flowers and foliage over the doors and mantle-pieces are well executed. Adjoining to the palace are to be ſeen the beautiful Gothic ruins of the chapel or church of Holyrood-houſe, which is all that now remains of the wealthy abbey founded by David the Firſt, in 1128, and richly endowed. The environs of the abbey of Holyrood-houſe were formerly conſidered as a ſanctuary to criminals; and they ſtill afford an aſylum for inſolvent debtors. Adjoining to the palace is an extenſive park, firſt incloſed by James the Fifth, all of which is a ſanctuary. The heritable keeper of this palace is the Duke of Hamilton.

Linlithgow. This palace is deſcribed in the view of the county of Linlithgow. See p. 88. The keeper is Sir Thomas Livingſtone, Bart.

Scoon, another palace, is deſcribed in the account of Perthſhire at p. 101 of this volume. The Earl of Mansfield is its heritable keeper.

Lochmaben. The caſtle which bore this name was in Dumfries-ſhire; it is now a mere ruin: its keeper, the Earl of Hopetoun.

Dunſtaffnage Caſtle. This ancient palace, once the place where the famous chair or ſeat, conſidered as the palladium of North Britain, was kept, is in Argyleſhire; it is the property of a private gentleman, but the Duke of Argyle has the office of hereditary keeper.

Rothſay. This caſtle is in the iſle of Bute. It is a ruin ſo completely covered with ivy that few portions of its walls can be ſeen. Here are ſtill pointed out the bed-chambers and banqueting-rooms of Robert the Second and Third, the laſt Scottiſh monarchs who inhabited this venerable pile. This caſtle was, in ſucceeding ages, the principal abode of the Stuarts, anceſtors of the preſent family of Bute, long the hereditary conſtables of the kingdom. It continued to be their reſidence until it was burned by the Duke of Argyle in the troubles of 1685. It is now faſt mouldering away with age; but the Earl of Bute has the title of hereditary keeper of the palace.

Falkland, in Fifeſhire, was originally one of the ſeats of the Macduffs, earls of Fife, and was then called the Caſtle of Falkland. In the reign of James the Firſt, it was forfeited to the crown. Afterwards it was greatly enlarged and ornamented by James the Fifth; and from the pleaſantneſs of its ſituation, and the conveniency of the adjacent country for hunting, it was made a royal reſidence. The ſouth front is yet remarkably entire, and partly inhabited. The eaſt wing

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was accidentally burnt down in the time of Charles II.; and of it a great part of the naked and mouldering walls ſtill remain. The heir of the Skene family is hereditary keeper.

Dumfermline. This palace is alſo in Fifeſhire. The time when it was built is unknown. A little to the ſouth-eaſt of the town of Dumfermline, in a romantic ſituation, on the verge of a glen, the ſouth wall of it ſtill remains, and indicates that it muſt once have been a magnificent fabric. The chimney of the apartment is ſtill pointed out where Charles the Firſt was born. The Marquis of Tweeddale is keeper.

There are other palaces, as *Carrick* and *Denſon*, of which the Duke of Argyle is keeper; and *Lochdoon*, which is committed to the Earl of Caſſilis.

OFFICERS OF THE KING.

Beside the royal ſtate diſplayed in retaining theſe palaces, ſeveral offices and appointments are kept up, ſome of which are hereditary, others are beſtowed for life or during pleaſure.

The hereditary offices are,

1. The Lord High Steward. The rank of this officer was between the Lord High Chamberlain and the Lord High Conſtable. He was judge of the king's houſehold, and the whole family of the royal palace was under his care. This office was eſteemed of great dignity, and was held heritably for many years by one family, who at laſt, when ſurnames came in uſe, aſſumed for theirs the name of their office, Steward or Stewart. This was done by Walter the ſon of Alan, who was at the ſame time Juſticiar to Alexander II., in 1230. This family were frequently nearly allied to the crown, and at laſt ſucceeded to it in the perſon of Robert, eldeſt ſon to Walter Stewart, in the year 1371. This Robert was the ninth heritable high ſteward of Scotland, and his ſon, afterwards King Robert III., was created by his father prince and ſteward of Scotland, ſince which time the eldeſt ſon of the king is *natus Seneſchallus Scotiæ.*

2. The Master of the Household. This is an officer of great dignity in Scotland, and the poſt, by inheritance, belongs to the Duke of Argyle; who, as a badge of his office, carries a batton covered with crimſon velvet powdered with gold thiſtles, adorned with imperial crowns. This office appears to be the ſame with the *Dapifer* or *Seneſchallus*, who was *Dominus Domus Regis*, and afterwards was called *Seneſchallus Scotiæ.* And after the *Seneſchally* came to the crown,

theſe officers were called *Magiſtri Hoſpitii Regis.* It was reſerved at the Union.

3. DEPUTY MASTER OF THE HOUSEHOLD. Poſſeſſor, Sir Alexander Dalmahoy.

4. ROYAL STANDARD BEARER. The Earl of Lauderdale.

5. USHER. This office is equivalent to that of maſter of the ceremonies of England, for the uſher was anciently the introductor of ambaſſadors to the kings of Scotland; he alſo attended the king or his high commiſſioner, and by virtue of his office rode in the ſolemn cavalcade to parliament. It is an old office, and belongs heritably to the family of the Cockburns of Lanton.

6. CARVER. Sir John Anſtruther, of Anſtruther.

7. CUP-BEARER. Sir David Carnagie, of Southeſk.

8. ARMOUR-BEARER AND SQUIRE OF THE ROYAL BODY. Hugh Seton, of Touch, Eſq.

The appointments not hereditary are, *Keeper of the Wardrobe*, ſalary 55*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.*; *Hiſtoriographer*, ſalary 200*l.*; *Botaniſt*, ſalary 50*l.*; *Falconer*, *Phyſician*, *Apothecary*, and *Limner*.

The officers of the Chapel Royal are,

THE ALMONER, who takes care of the king's poor, to catechiſe and inſtruct them. The number of them is according to the years of the king's age; as their badge theſe children wear a blue gown, which is given them yearly on his majeſty's birth-day, with as many pence as his majeſty has lived years; and on his birth-day the almoner diſtributes money alſo among the common poor. His ſalary is 41*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* He has a deputy.

CHAPLAINS. The chaplains are named out of the eſtabliſhed clergy. Four have the title of deans; ſix are mere chaplains. Their ſalaries from 80*l.* to 150*l.*

PARLIAMENT.

THE more ancient hiſtory of Scotland, like that of other nations, is involved in obſcurity and fable. Particular circumſtances have alſo concurred to bring down that obſcurity to a later period than otherwiſe would have happened. Records have periſhed in times of foreign invaſion, and domeſtic commotion, and the labour of hiſtorians has been more employed in commemorating hoſtilities, diſcuſſing their grounds, celebrating victories, and palliating defeats, than in fixing the fugitive traces which aſcertain the origin of rights, cuſtoms, laws, and eſtabliſhments. Yet, notwithſtanding this darkneſs attending the Scottiſh hiſtory, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that even in remote times, the form of government would be ſimi-

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lar to that which took place in England after the arrival of the Saxons, and was eſtabliſhed, though, perhaps, with ſome ſmall variations, in the other nations of Europe that were formed upon the ruins of the Roman empire: for, as far back as we can go with any degree of certainty, we diſcover a limited monarchy; and find, that all matters of conſequence, or public concern, were tranſacted, not by the king alone, but by the king and his great council; and this great council is eaſily traced to have been of much the ſame nature with the great council of England during the time of the Saxons, and the reigns of the firſt princes of the Norman line.

But, although the general form of a parliament is diſtinctly ſeen, and although the introductory recital to the ſtatutes of William the Firſt, commonly called *the Lion*, ſhew that they were enacted by the king with the aſſiſtance of his biſhops, abbots, barons, and other good men of the realm, (*probi homines terræ ſuæ*) ſtill it is doubtful what particular claſs was included in the term *probi homines*; whether they were elected or deputed, or came of their own right, or at the call of the ſovereign; whether they repreſented, or when they began to repreſent any body, and whom; when boroughs began to ſend deputies, and when the parliament formed itſelf into two houſes. All theſe matters are obſcure in the hiſtory of England, and ſtill more ſo in that of Scotland, but it is quite certain that the parliament had, long before the union, been compoſed like that of England, with the exception that the more violent ſyſtem of eccleſiaſtical reformation adopted in that country had left no traces of the epiſcopacy in the great council of the nation.

Peers. The titles of peerage in Scotland were the ſame as in England, and their precedence with relation to each other the ſame. At the period of the Union the roll of peers produced to the houſe, on the 1ſt day of May 1707, contained 10 dukes, 3 marquiſſes, 75 earls, 17 viſcounts, and 49 barons; in all 154 peers, to which liſt, on motion, two or three were added.

By the 22nd article of the Union, it is declared, that "of "the peers of Scotland at the time of the Union, ſixteen ſhall "be the number to ſit and vote in the Houſe of Lords of the "parliament of Great Britain;" and by the act 1707, c. 8., it is ordained, "that the ſixteen peers, or forty-five commiſ- "ſioners for ſhires and boroughs, ſhall be choſen by the peers, "barons, and boroughs reſpectively, in this preſent ſeſſion of "parliament, and out of the number thereof, in the ſame "manner as committees of parliament are uſually now choſen, "who ſhall be members of the reſpective houſes of the ſaid

" firſt parliament of Great Britain, for and on the part of " Scotland." The members on the part of Scotland being elected, her majeſty agreeably to the powers veſted in the crown, declared the members of the parliament of England, as it then ſtood, (April 30.) to be members of the reſpective houſes of the firſt parliament of Great Britain on the part of England.

The mode of electing and the principal caſes that have regulated the rights of the peers are noticed in Vol. I. p. 208.

As the king is precluded by the act of union from creating peers of Scotland, and as thoſe peers of that country who have received patents of peerage in England cannot be elected among the ſixteen, although they have a right to vote at their election, the number out of which the return muſt be made is, by the extinction of ſome families, and by the additional honours acquired by others, conſiderably reduced. The number at the preſent time appears to be 1 duke, 2 marquiſſes, 34 earls, 2 viſcounts and 22 barons; the whole liſt being thus reduced from 154 to 61.

RANK AND PRIVILEGES. The repreſentation of the peerage being ſettled, the ranks and immunities of the nobility of Scotland were fixed at the Union, by a reſolution of the commiſſioners, " that all the peers of Scotland, and their ſucceſſors " to their honours and dignities, be from and after the Union, " reckoned and declared peers of Great Britain, and that they " enjoy, in their reſpective degrees and orders, and all other " titles, dignities, pre-eminencies, immunities, and privileges " whatſoever, as fully and freely as the peers of England do " at preſent, or the peers of Britain may enjoy hereafter; " provided that no peer, who ſhall not then have the right to " ſit in parliament, ſhall be capable of ſitting upon the trial of " any peer; and alſo, that no peer, not having right to ſit in " parliament, ſhall have privilege of parliament. And alſo " that the peers of Scotland for the time being, and their ſucceſſors, do, at, and after the Union, according to their different " degrees and orders, enjoy the rank and precedency of all " peers to be thereafter created of the like orders and degrees " in the United Kingdom; provided always, that it be underſtood, that all perſons who ſhall be peers of England at the " time of the Union, ſhall for ever enjoy the rank and order of " precedence of their reſpective degrees, before the ſame " degrees of the peers of Scotland." This reſolution was explained and extended by others, declaring that "*all* peers of " Scotland, and their ſucceſſors to their honours and dignities, " ſhall, from and after the Union, be reckoned and declared " peers of Great Britain, and ſhall be tried as peers of Great

" Britain,

" Britain, and ſhall enjoy the privileges of peers, as fully as " the peers of England do now enjoy the ſame, or as they or " any other peers of Britain may hereafter enjoy the ſame, " except the right and privilege of ſitting in the Houſe of Lords, " and the privileges depending thereon, and particularly the " right of ſitting upon the trials of peers. That the ſixteen " peers who are to ſit in the Houſe of Lords of Great Britain, " for that part of the United Kingdom called Scotland, after " the Union, ſhall have all privileges of parliament which the " peers of England now have, and which they or any peers of " Britain ſhall have after the Union, and particularly the right " of ſitting upon the trials of peers. That in caſe of the trial " of any peer in time of adjournment or prorogation of par- " liament, the ſaid 16 peers ſhall be ſummoned in the ſame " manner, and have the ſame powers and privileges at ſuch " trials as any other peers of Great Britain. And that in " caſe any trials of peers ſhall hereafter happen, when there " is no parliament in being, the 16 peers of Scotland who ſat " in the laſt preceding parliament, ſhall be ſummoned in the " ſame manner, and have the ſame powers and privileges at " ſuch trials as any other peers of Great Britain."

COMMONS. It has already been mentioned that ſince the Union the repreſentation of the commons of Scotland in the Britiſh houſe has been effected by the introduction of 45 members, of whom 30 ſit for counties, one for the city of Edinburgh and 14 for the royal boroughs, divided into diſtricts, and each diſtrict returning one member.

ANCIENT STATE. Before the Union, the lower houſe of parliament was compoſed of the repreſentatives of ſhires and of royal boroughs. The ſhires were called in the Scottiſh parliament in the order ſubjoined, and each returned the number of commiſſioners annexed to its name.

COUNTIES.		COUNTIES.	
Edinburgh	4	Renfrew	3
Haddington	4	Stirling	3
Berwick	4	Linlithgow	2
Roxburgh	4	Perth	2
Selkirk	3	Kincardine	2
Peebles	2	Aberdeen	4
Lanark	4	Inverneſs	2
Dumfries	4	Nairn	2
Wigtoun	2	Cromarty	1
Air	4	Argyle	3
Dumbarton	2	Fife	4
Bute	2	Kinroſs	1

Forfar

COUNTIES.		COUNTIES.	
Forfar - -	4	Elgin - -	2
Banff - - -	2	Orkney and Zetland -	2
Kirkcudbright - -	2	Clackmannan -	1
Sutherland - -	2	Roſs - -	2
Caithneſs - -	2		

Boroughs. The boroughs which returned commiſſioners were as follow: each was repreſented by one member, except the capital, which had two.

Edinburgh, Perth, Dundee, Aberdeen, Stirling, Linlithgow, St. Andrew's, Glaſgow, Air, Haddington, Dyſart, Kirkcaldy, Montroſe, Cowper, Anſtruther Eaſter, Dumfries, Inverneſs, Burnt Iſland, Inverkeithing, Kinghorn, Brechin, Jedburgh, Kirkcudbright, Wigtoun, Dumfermline, Pittenweem, Selkirk, Dumbarton, Renfrew, Dunbar, Lanark, Aberbrothick, Elgin, Peebles, Crail, Tayn, Culroſs, Banff, Whithorn, Forfar, Rotheſay, Nairn, Forres, Rutherglen, North Berwick, Anſtruther Weſter, Cullen, Lauder, Kintore, Annand, Lochmabin, Sanquhar, New Galloway, Kilrennie, Fortroſe, Dingwall, Dornoch, Queensferry, Inverury, Inverary, Wick, Kirkwall, Inverbervie, Stranrauer, Campbeltown.

Thus the total number of the Scottiſh houſe of commons was 158; the ſhires returning 91, the boroughs 67.

Modern Representation. The manner in which the Scottiſh boroughs are to be claſſed in order to return members to the Britiſh houſe of commons is, by the treaty of Union, declared as follows:

For the boroughs of Kirkwal, Wick, Dornock, Dingwal, and Tayne, 1.

For the boroughs of Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairn, and Forreſs, 1.

For the boroughs of Elgin, Cullen, Banff, Inverury, and Kintore, 1.

For the boroughs of Aberdeen, Inverbervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothock, and Brechin, 1.

For the boroughs of Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrew's, 1.

For the boroughs of Crail, Kilrennie, Anſtruther Eaſter, Anſtruther Weſter, and Pittenweem, 1.

For the boroughs of Dyſart, Kirkcaldy, Kinghorn, and Burnt Iſland, 1.

For the boroughs of Inverkeithing, Dumfermline, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Stirling, 1.

For the boroughs of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton, 1.

For

For the boroughs of Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh, 1.

For the boroughs of Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanark, 1.

For the boroughs of Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaben, and Kirkcudbright, 1.

For the boroughs of Wigtoun, New Galloway, Stranrauer, and Whitehern, 1.

And for the boroughs of Air, Irvine, Rotheſay, Campbeltown, and Inverary, 1.

QUALIFICATION OF COUNTY MEMBERS AND ELECTORS. The firſt regular repreſentation of the counties was introduced by the act 1587, c. 114., which provides, that the commiſſioner to be ſent to parliament ſhall be a freeholder and reſident within the county within which he claims a right to vote. Two commiſſioners are directed to be choſen for each county at the firſt court after Michaelmas, and of the election intimation was to be made to Chancery. This rule was ſomewhat enlarged by the ſtatute 1661, c. 35., in order to ſuit thoſe new proprietors to whom the church lands had been conveyed. Accordingly it is enacted, that all who formerly held of biſhops or abbots, and thoſe holding of his majeſty, &c. whoſe yearly rent amounted to 10 chalders of victual, or 1000*l.* Scots of free rent, ſhall be entitled to elect or be elected commiſſioners to parliament. This explanatory ſtatute required ſtill further explanation, and, there being now a new valuation of the kingdom, the whole ſyſtem was brought under the review of parliament. In the year 1681, c. 21., it is declared that none ſhall have a right to vote but thoſe who ſtand publicly infeft in property or ſuperiority, and are in poſſeſſion of a 40*l.* land of old extent, holding of the king or prince; or (where the old extent does not appear) are in poſſeſſion of land held in the ſame manner, and liable in public burdens for his majeſty's ſupply, of 400*l.* of valued rent. This act denies the privilege of voting to adjudgers during the currency of the legal extent, but after its expiry gives a right to vote to the adjudger firſt infeft. The proper wadſetter, in lands of the legal extent, is declared to have a right to vote. Apparent heirs in poſſeſſion are entitled to vote in right of the anceſtor's infeftment, and huſbands are declared to have the ſame privilege in right of their wives, or under their rights of courteſy.

Having in this manner deſcribed their qualification, this ſtatute directs the freeholders of each ſhire or ſtewartry, having election of commiſſioner, "to meet at the head borough on "the firſt Tueſday of May then next, and make up a roll of

"all

" all the freeholders of the county, continuing or adjourning " their meetings until the rolls for elections be complete; and " the ſaid freeholders are ordered to meet at the head borough " of the ſaid ſhires or ſtewartries reſpective, at the Michaelmas " head court yearly thereafter, and ſhall reviſe the ſaid roll for " election, and make ſuch alterations thereon as have occurred " ſince their laſt meeting, from time to time, which roll for " election ſhall be inſerted in the ſheriff or ſtewart books, " particularly appointed for that end, according as they ſhall " be ſtated each Michaelmas court." The freeholders ſtanding on the roll are thus made judges, in the firſt inſtance, of all that relates to the roll, and, while parliament is not ſitting, a power of review of the proceedings of the freeholders is given to the court of ſeſſion.

The great object of the Michaelmas head court is to preſerve regularity and purity in the roll of freeholders, and, with this view, admiſſion to the roll is guarded with much care. The claim to be admitted on the roll of freeholders muſt deſcribe the titles on which the claim ſtands, that all may know the nature of the claim; and it muſt be preſented ſo long before the Michaelmas meeting as to enable the freeholders to inveſtigate the title. This is regulated by the 16 Geo. II. § 11., which enacts, " That to prevent all ſurprize " at the Michaelmas meeting, every freeholder who intends " to claim to be enrolled at any ſubſequent Michaelmas meeting of the freeholders, ſhall for the ſpace of two calendar " months at leaſt before the ſaid Michaelmas meeting, leave " with the ſheriff or ſtewart clerk a copy of his claim, ſetting " forth the names of his lands and his titles thereto, and dates " thereof, with the old extent or valuation upon which he " deſires to be enrolled; and, in caſe of his neglect to leave " his claims as aforeſaid, he ſhall not be enrolled at ſuch " Michaelmas meeting." Further, the ſheriff-clerk is required, " on receipt of the claim, to endorſe on the back thereof the " day he received the ſame, and alſo to give a copy of the " aforeſaid claim to any perſon who ſhall demand the ſame, " upon paying the legal fee of an ordinary extract of the ſame " length." This claim, having been thus duly lodged, is produced to the freeholders ſigned either by the claimant or by a perſon authorized to act for him. When the claimant is abroad at the time of preſenting the claim, a ſpecial mandate, authorizing the claim to be entered, has been required by the court. The claim of enrolment being in this manner made, entered, and ſubſcribed, it does not follow as a matter of courſe that it muſt be taken up by the freeholders at the Michaelmas meeting; for unleſs it be moved to the meeting by

by the claimant, or by ſome perſon appointed by him, or in poſſeſſion of the titles, (for the poſſeſſion of the titles implies a mandate when the claimant is within the kingdom), the freeholders are guilty of no omiſſion in allowing it to lie over, nor is the clerk to the meeting bound to move it. The claimant appears in perſon, or ſome one appears in his name, poſſeſſed of his titles, or properly authorized to appear for him. The firſt thing, after moving the meeting to take the claim into conſideration, is to produce the titles founded on by the claimant, and alſo evidence of the valuation, or of the old extent of the lands. The connecting links of the titles, as retours, &c., commonly called midcouples, muſt alſo be produced; and the evidence of the old extent or valuation muſt be equally exact. Theſe particulars being attended to, and the claimant, or the perſon empowered by him, having produced, with the claims, the radical titles, conſiſting of the crown-charter, ſeiſin, and connecting titles; with the evidence of the old extent or valuation of the eſtate, he then moves the claim to the meeting. Where there are objections, they are ſtated by the freeholders, and anſwers are made in ſupport of the claim; they are afterwards furniſhed in writing to the clerk of the meeting, and entered in his minutes. The claim is then put to the vote; the ſame thing happens where there are no objections, and, conſiſtently with the ſtate of the vote, the claim is admitted or diſmiſſed.

Thus, then, at this day, in order to qualify a perſon to elect or be elected a member of parliament to repreſent a county, he muſt not only be a commoner, of the full age of twenty-one, of ſane mind, and under no religious or legal diſqualification; but he muſt have ſtood infeft during the ſpace of a year, and have been in poſſeſſion as an immediate vaſſal holding of the crown or prince, abſolutely and irredeemably, either in fee or in life-rent, of the property or ſuperiority of lands, mills, teinds, or fiſhings, retoured to forty ſhillings of old extent, prior to 1681, or valued at 400*l.* Scots; or he muſt be the apparent heir of a perſon holding ſuch a qualification; or the huſband of a female proprietor, who, if ſhe does not hold her freehold feudally veſted in her as an heir, muſt have been infeft for the ſpace of a year. Land is the baſis of the freehold qualification; but although the ſtatutes uſe this term, it is to be underſtood in a liberal ſenſe, and as equivalent to *eſtate*. Accordingly, many ſubjects are received as lands in the meaning of the act. *Mills*, where they have been valued, are the undoubted ground of a freehold qualification, and are ſubjects capable of making part of a cumulo, wherever they have

aſtricted multures; where they have none, and are to be conſidered as nothing more than machines capable of performing part of the agricultural labour, whether they may form any part of a cumulo may be doubted. In the ſame way, *fiſhings* form a ſound baſis of a qualification, whether they conſiſt of ſalmon fiſhings or other fiſhings, as oyſters, muſcles, or even white fiſhing in the ſea. *Feu duties* alſo form the ground of a qualification, and in ſplitting a cumulo of feu duties, payable at the general valuation, a portion of the cumulo will be aſſigned to the feu duties due to the ſuperior. *Teinds*, in the ſame manner, may ground a qualification, where the claim is made by the proprietors of the lands, out of which the teinds are due; whether they would found a qualification in favour of a third party has not yet been decided. But *heritable offices*, though feudalized and retoured, have not been received as the foundation of a freeholder's title. The diſcuſſion of the right of electing and being elected, has given riſe to a great variety of deciſions, and the deſire of gaining or increaſing influence, has occaſioned recourſe to many devices for the purpoſe of creating temporary and occaſional freeholds. Theſe have been met, as in England, by ſtatutes enacting prohibitions, and preſcribing oaths; but it is not to be ſuppoſed that legiſlative meaſures can effectually reſtrain practices to which men are led by the oſtenſible deſire of promoting a public good, and from the detection of which, if they avoid great crimes, ſuch as perjury and ſubordination, no permanent diſgrace enſues.

SUTHERLAND. A remarkable anomaly in the election-law of Scotland is the caſe of the county of Sutherland. This ſhire being almoſt entirely held of the family of Sutherland, the leſſer proprietors, holding of that family, were in a manner unrepreſented; and that ſtate of matters ſeems to have introduced a practice that was ſanctioned by cuſtom, and was at laſt attended with ſuch inconvenience as to attract the attention of the legiſlature, and to require rules neceſſary for removing the improprieties in the practice, and capable of reſtricting the exerciſe of the right of franchiſe within bounds analogous to thoſe of the other counties in Scotland. The moſt remarkable extenſion of the right of freehold conſiſted in ſeveral perſons claiming to vote in right of the ſame freehold; for as the ſituation of the greater part of the county required that the vaſſals of the family of Sutherland ſhould enjoy a freehold, this privilege was claimed and exerciſed by others, ſo that an individual holding of the crown, and claiming, as he certainly was entitled to do, a freehold qualification as a crown vaſſal; his ſub-vaſſal in like manner made the

ſame claim, and from the analogy of the rights enjoyed by the vaſſals of the Earl of Sutherland, he was admitted to the privilege of a freeholder, equally with his immediate ſuperior, the crown vaſſal. The extent alſo of the valuation was diſregarded, ſo that the right of freehold in this county was ſubjected to no rule whatever, when the matter was taken up by the ſtatute 16 Geo. II. cap. 11., which on a narrative, that by the practices that had prevailed in the county of Sutherland, "votes had been unduly multiplied, and ſeveral "perſons have claimed a vote in reſpect of the ſuperiority "and property of the ſame lands, whereby great confuſions "are likely to enſue in future elections," enacts, that after the 1ſt of September 1743, no perſon ſhall be capable to be elected commiſſioner for the ſaid ſhire, or ſhall have right to vote at ſuch election, "unleſs he be infeft, and in poſſeſſion "of lands liable to his majeſty's ſupplies and other public "burthens, at the rate of 200*l.* Scots valued rent." "That "one perſon, and no more, ſhall be entitled to vote at "ſuch elections, or be elected, in reſpect of the ſame lands; "and that where lands are now holden by any baron or other "freeholder, immediately of the king or prince, ſuch baron or "freeholder ſhall be capable to be elected, and ſhall be en-"titled to vote for thoſe lands, and no vaſſal or ſub-vaſſal of "the ſaid baron or freeholder ſhall have right to vote, or "be elected in reſpect thereof; and that where lands are "now holden, or ſhall at any time hereafter be holden of "the king or prince, by a peer or other perſon, or body "politic or corporate, who by law are diſabled to be a "member of the Houſe of Commons, or to vote in ſuch "elections; in ſuch caſe, the proprietor and owner of ſuch "lands, and not any of his ſuperiors, ſhall be entitled to vote, "or be elected in reſpect of the ſame lands, and that no "alienation of the ſuperiority to be made by ſuch peer or "other perſon, or body politic, incapable to elect or be "elected, ſhall deprive the proprietor or owner of the lands "of his right to vote in the election for the ſaid ſhire, or his "capacity to be elected; and that the property of lands of "valuation aforeſaid, (200*l.*) holden in part immediately "of the king or prince, and in part of a peer, or other perſon, "or body politic, incapable to elect or be elected, ſhall be a "ſufficient qualification to the proprietor and owner of ſuch "lands, and ſhall entitle ſuch proprietor to vote and to be "elected for the ſaid ſhire, any law or uſage to the contrary "notwithſtanding."

From this enactment it appears, 1. That the valuation in the county of Sutherland which conſtitutes a freehold qualification

cation in place of 400*l.* is reduced to 200*l.* 2. That a perſon holding lands of the requiſite valuation of the king or prince, may be enrolled on a mere ſuperiority, in the ſame way as in any other county. 3. That where the lands are held not of the king or prince, but of a peer or other perſon, or body politic, incapable of electing or being elected, it is not the immediate vaſſal of ſuch ſuperior, but the ſub-vaſſal in poſſeſſion, the perſon poſſeſſed of the *dominium utile* of the lands, that is entitled to vote: and, laſtly, where the qualification is compoſed partly of lands held of the crown, and partly of lands held of a peer, &c., the lands muſt be the property of the claimant. The diſtinguiſhing mark, therefore, betwixt the conſtitution of a freehold in the county of Sutherland, and in any other county, conſiſts in the extent of valuation being lowered; and in requiring the claimant wherever he holds of a peer, or of thoſe incapable of voting, to be proprietor of the lands on which he claims. It is farther enacted by the ſaid ſtatute, that the freeholders of the county ſhould meet at the head-borough of the ſhire, at the Michaelmas head-court, 1745, and make up "a roll of "electors having right to vote in the choice of a commiſ- "ſioner, in terms of the preſent act, and the other acts of "parliament made touching the election of commiſſioners "for the ſhires in Scotland; and which roll ſo made up "ſhall be reviſed yearly at the Michaelmas meetings, and at "and after elections, according to the rules preſcribed in this "act, and in other acts made for regulating the elections of "commiſſioners for ſhires in that part of Great Britain called "Scotland; and it is declared, that the ſaid acts of parlia- "ment do extend to the ſhire of Sutherland, as well as to "the other ſhires in Scotland, except in ſo far as it is other- "wiſe provided by this preſent act."

Disqualifications. As the roll made up at the Michaelmas head-court is deciſive as to the right of electing or being elected, objections much more nice have been admitted as general rules, than thoſe which are enforced at the poll in England. It has been decided that being the delegate of a body corporate which holds lands in fee, does not entitle a man to be on the freeholder's roll. That *minority*, *lunacy*, and *fatuity* are, while they laſt, diſqualifications. There is a ſtate known to the Scottiſh law, by the term *interdiction*; it is a form by which perſons, who though ſo weak as not to be truſted with the total management of their affairs, yet are not in a ſituation to be found lunatic, may be reſtrained from diſpoſing of their heritage without the conſent of certain perſons, who are termed their interdicters. A legal interdiction is an act of the court of ſeſſion, pronounced after taking cognizance

of

of the perſon's ſituation. A voluntary interdiction is a private act of the perſon himſelf; who, ſenſible of his own weakneſs or profuſion, grants a bond, by which he reſtrains himſelf from diſpoſing of his heritage without the conſent of certain friends therein named. It is doubted whether this ſtate does or does not diſqualify. Even in legal interdiction, it is ſaid, there is not required to ſanction the reſtraint any thing more than evidence of that profuſion and facility which admits of impoſition, but which is far from that imbecility or idiocy which is ſufficient to deprive the individual of the total management of his affairs. Interdiction extends only to heritage, and leaves the interdicted perſon at full liberty in regard to his moveable eſtate; and with regard to voluntary interdiction, the ſlighteſt grounds ſuffice as the foundation of the reſtraint. At the ſame time it may be proper to obſerve, that Spottiſwood, who wrote on the ſubject, ſays expreſsly, "A perſon "interdicted cannot be elected." He, however, gives neither reaſon nor authority for the aſſertion.

Popery is a complete diſqualification. The ſtatute of 1707 declares, "That none ſhall be capable to elect, or be elected, "for any of the ſaid eſtates; but ſuch as are twenty-one "years of age complete, and proteſtant, excluding all papiſts, "or ſuch, who being ſuſpected of popery, and required, re-"fuſe to ſwear and ſubſcribe the formula contained in the "3d act, made in the 8th and 9th ſeſſion of King William's "parliament, entitled, 'Act for preventing Growth of "'Popery.'" Under this enactment, the enrollment of a papiſt may be objected to, and his removal from the roll, even when enrolled, may at all times be enforced by requiring him to take the formula; nor will his having remained for four months on the roll afford any ground for retaining him on the roll. This formula is not repealed by the 33d Geo. III. c. 44. A *non-juror* would be equally diſqualified; but as the offence cannot be proved without the evidence of witneſſes, or the acknowledgment of the party to whom the objection is made; and as the court of freeholders had no original juriſdiction by which they can examine witneſſes, nor even if they could cite witneſſes to appear, do their forms ſeem well to admit of a warrant of citation being given, the evidence neceſſary for proving this objection cannot be brought forward.

The *eldeſt ſon of a Scottiſh peer* cannot repreſent a Scottiſh county or borough in the Britiſh parliament. He may repreſent an Engliſh county or borough; and the ſon of a Britiſh peer may repreſent a Scottiſh borough or county; as may an Iriſh peer.

The diſqualifications contained in the 22d Geo. III. c. 41., and which are already enumerated in vol. I. p. 236. extend to Scotland; and perſons convicted of bribery, perjury or ſubornation are alſo diſqualified. It may be doubted whether a perſon rendered infamous by the ſentence of a court, is deprived of his right of franchiſe. But in the queſtions which came from the county of Sutherland in 1741, a freeholder having been declared infamous by the Court of Seſſion, in terms of the act 1621, in regard to fraudulent bankruptcy, it was found no ſufficient objection to his voting or being inrolled. Lord Elchies preſerves the caſe, and ſubjoins this remark: "Several differed, and thought the objection good; "others of us (*inter quos ego*) were not clear, and did not "vote."

MICHAELMAS HEAD-COURT. This court is created for one ſingle act, the clearing and adjuſting of the roll. It is empowered to turn from the roll thoſe who have no right to remain, or to admit thoſe who ſhall prove their title to be enrolled. It has no continuation of days, and no power of reviewing the proceedings of a former court. The whole juriſdiction and authority of this court is founded on ſtatute alone. The election ſtatute preſcribes in what caſes it ſhall act, and by what evidence it ſhall decide; each Michaelmas head-court ſeems to be completely inſulated, and its judgments to be reviewable only by the Court of Seſſion. In this court the freeholders, who are the judges, have alſo the intereſts of parties. The queſtions that come before them tend to increaſe the number of freeholders, and ſo touch on that right of franchiſe, in which all of them have an intereſt. In this reſpect the Michaelmas head-court is peculiar, and the ſtatutes by which its juriſdiction is given have been careful to place its deciſions under the immediate and ſummary review of the ſupreme civil court. Each head-court, therefore, is to be conſidered as totally unconnected with any other. Whatever is done amiſs there, is reviewed by the Court of Seſſion, and the orders of that court of review are carried into execution, not by the court that originally pronounced the deciſion, but by the ſheriff-clerk.

The place of meeting is provided for by the act 1681, which declares, that the election of commiſſioners, either at the Michaelmas court, or at the calling of parliament, (and the ſame prevails at the common Michaelmas head-courts,) the ſaid freeholders "ſhall meet and convene at "the headborough of the ſhire or ſtewartry, in that room "where the ſheriff or ſtewart-court uſeth to be held betwixt "mid-day and two in the afternoon; which room ſhall be

"patent

" patent to them, and all others removed, but whom they " call. And by ſ. 18. of the 16th Geo. II. c. 11., it is en- " acted, that the Michaelmas head-court ſhall be held in " all time to come, on the day to which it ſhall appear to the " ſheriff or ſtewart-depute to have been moſt uſually held in " times paſt; and, to prevent all uncertainty in time coming, " the days of meeting to be fixed by the ſheriff, ſhall be the " anniverſary for holding the Michaelmas head-court of the " ſaid ſhire or ſtewartry in all time coming." In this manner, the members of the Michaelmas head-court, the place, and the time of meeting are aſcertained; but to enable them to act as a court, a preſes and clerk muſt be choſen.

Although this court has no power of review, and no power of altering or affecting what has been done at a former meeting, the practice of the court of freeholders is to permit the ſame claim to be preſented over and over again; for although a claim has been thrown out at one meeting, it may not only be preſented at the next, but it may be received, and the claimant admitted to the roll, ſo little connexion is there betwixt the proceedings of one court and another.

In the proceedings of this court, it is material that the parties aggrieved by its deciſion ſhould have the proper means of redreſs, as well as that the expence to which the freeholders may expoſe themſelves by raſh or by partial deciſions ſhould affect thoſe only by whom the act has been done; on this account, the minutes of the meeting ought to contain evidence both of what was done, and by whom. The claimant, or freeholder aggrieved, proteſts for redreſs, and takes inſtruments in the hands of the clerk; the grounds of the proteſt ought to be ſtated in writing, and furniſhed to the clerk, that he may inſert them in the minutes. The minutes of the meeting repreſent what has been done. The firſt part is authenticated by the parliamentary preſes and ſheriff-clerk; the after-part of the minutes, after ſtating the procedure and the names of the freeholders by whom motions were made, or who voted in the queſtions decided by the meeting, gives the roll of freeholders as adjuſted by the meeting; and the whole is authenticated by the ſubſcription of the preſes and clerk to the meeting.

Court of Session. In the proceedings of the Michaelmas head-court, the claims of enrolment are judged of in the firſt inſtance; and the power of the Court of Seſſion in rectifying any acts of injuſtice that the deciſions of the freeholders may have occaſioned, is ſolely as a court of the review, under powers conferred by ſpecial ſtatute; while the power of review in the Houſe of Peers is the natural and neceſſary conſequence

of the ſuper-eminent juriſdiction which the conſtitution has placed in that high-court. By the act 1681, c. 21., the confuſion ariſing from elections was attempted to be regulated by rejecting every ground of complaint that did not appear in the proteſts regularly taken at the election. The act bears: "And "if the objectors ſhall not be cleared and acquieſce, they ſhall "take inſtruments containing their objections againſt the admitting to or excluding any perſon from the foreſaid roll; "and it is hereby declared, that no other objection ſhall be "competent in parliament, or convention, but what ſhall be "contained in the inſtruments taken as aforeſaid." In this manner the diſputed points for diſcuſſion in parliament were aſcertained, and the juriſdiction of the Court of Seſſion was conferred by the following proviſions; "and in caſe objections "be made when a parliament or convention is not called, a "particular diet ſhall be appointed by the meeting, and intimate to the parties contraverting to attend the Lords of "Seſſion for their determination, who ſhall determine the "ſame at the ſaid diet ſummarily, according to law, upon "ſupplication, without further citation." This was the whole juriſdiction enjoyed by the Court of Seſſion, in regard to the qualification of freeholders, down to the 16th Geo. II. c. 11., which on a narrative that the rolls of freeholders had in ſome inſtances been neglected to be made up, appoints the freeholders then on the roll to form the conſtituent members of that roll; and empowers any freeholder at any time before the 1ſt of December 1743, to ſupply by ſummary complaint to the Court of Seſſion, and to object to the title of any freeholder ſtanding on the roll, and provides that no ſuch freeholder ſhall be ſtruck off or left out of the roll, except on ſufficient objections ariſing from the alteration of that right or title, in reſpect of which he was enrolled. By this act the juriſdiction of the Court of Seſſion is conferred. It is obviouſly a mere power of review, and the caſes pointed out are: 1. Where a claimant is refuſed to be admitted to the roll, in which caſe he may complain of the refuſal: 2. Where a claimant has been improperly admitted, his admiſſion may be made the ſubject of complaint by any freeholder ſtanding on the roll; and 3. A perſon once ſtanding on the roll, who has been ſtruck off, may complain of ſuch judgment; and in all caſes the juriſdiction of the court continues only for four months, ſo that if the neceſſary complaint be not lodged within four months of the act complained of, the court has no juriſdiction whatever. The juriſdiction of the Court of Seſſion, as now underſtood, embraces all the queſtions that can ariſe from admitting or rejecting a claim, or

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from ſuſtaining or repelling an objection to a freeholder remaining on the roll, or from any act of the freeholders that may be equivalent to a deciſion in any one of theſe caſes. And beſides the juriſdiction enjoyed by the court as a court of review of the proceedings of the freeholders, they enjoy an original juriſdiction where the patrimonial intereſts of the freeholders are truly concerned.

ELECTION OF A COUNTY MEMBER. It is a general rule that none can be elected but thoſe who may elect, yet it does not hold, that all who can elect may be elected; for, by ſtatute, certain diſabilities to the power of being elected are eſtabliſhed, which do not go the length of depriving the perſons diſabled of the power of electing. By ſtatute 6th Anne, c. 7. § 30. every perſon diſabled from being elected in the Houſe of Commons in England, is diſabled to be elected in the Houſe of Commons of Great Britain. The diſabilities here alluded to are enumerated in vol. i. p. 233. The forms obſerved at the election do not differ ſo materially from thoſe in England as to require ſpecification; but as the roll made out at the Michaelmas head-court regulates the proceeding, the buſtle, tumult, and conflict which are prevalent at elections in England are never ſeen.

BOROUGHS. A royal borough is a corporate body erected by the ſovereign, compoſed of the inhabitants of a certain tract of ground. This erection is conſtituted by a royal charter, under which the magiſtracy hold of the crown the property of the borough, for behoof of the inhabitants, and to whom they give and renew thoſe titles which the tranſmiſſions of property amongſt the inhabitants require. The power of election of the office bearers, or magiſtrates of the community was originally in the burgeſſes. But this power has by ſtatute been given to the magiſtrates and council, according to what is termed the *ſet* of the borough. Before the Union of the two kingdoms, the city of Edinburgh ſent two, and every other royal borough one repreſentative to the Scottiſh parliament: but by the articles of Union fifteen repreſentatives of boroughs only are to be ſent to the parliament of Great Britain, of whom the city of Edinburgh elects one, and the other fourteen repreſentatives are choſen by fourteen different diſtricts of boroughs, into which the other royal boroughs of Scotland have been claſſed. The election, therefore, of a repreſentative is managed differently in the city of Edinburgh from what happens in other electing boroughs.

The management of royal boroughs, and what related to the rights and privileges of burgeſſes, was formerly under the controul of the Lord Chamberlain, aſſiſted by commiſſioners or

delegates from the boroughs of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, and Roxburgh; and while Berwick and Roxburgh were held by the Engliſh, their places were ſupplied by Lanark and Linlithgow, whence it got the name of the COURT of the FOUR BOROUGHS. This court was in uſe to call commiſſioners from the other royal boroughs to treat and determine upon matters reſpecting the boroughs in general; and hence it is reaſonably ſuppoſed, the convention of the royal boroughs had its origin, though it was acknowledged only by the ſtatute 1487, c. 3. By ſubſequent ſtatutes, the convention was allowed to meet four times a year, though, for a long time paſt, they have only met annually on the ſecond Tueſday of July. It is this court which has come in a conſiderable degree to affect the *ſets* of the royal boroughs; or, in other words, the *ſchemes* of election of the magiſtracy of the different boroughs. Originally, the magiſtrates of royal boroughs were elected by a poll of the burgeſſes, but by the act 1469, c. 30., the right of election was changed from the burgeſſes at large to the council, ſo that the old council elected the new, and both of them the magiſtracy. The ſame act requires, that the magiſtrates and council ſhall remain in office only for one year. But there is no general rule with regard to the number of councillors or magiſtrates, nor any preciſe mode of election pointed out, each borough has its own conſtitution or ſet, founded on ancient uſage, or regulated by the convention of royal boroughs.

There are here two bodies marked out, the officiares, as they are called, or the magiſtracy, conſiſting of the provoſt, bailies, &c., and the council. The council again are choſen from the merchants and trades of the borough, and the trades form different ſubordinate corporations, who act each in a body, the head of whom is an officer choſen annually, termed the *deacon* of the trade, who is preſes of the meeting of each of theſe ſubordinate corporations, and who, in all queſtions relating to the corporation, has a deciſive or caſting vote. In ſome boroughs, the deacons of the trades are councillors *ex officio*; in others, ſo many of them only are elected into the council; and this election may be made by the council from the deacons choſen by the trades, or it may be made from leets of the corporation prepared by the deacons. Sometimes even the deacons of the trades are choſen from leets prepared by the trades, ſubmitted to the council, who leſſen the leets, by ſtriking off part of the names; and then the leſſened leet being returned to the trade, forms the leet of names from which the trades chooſe their deacons. In ſhort, the ſet or conſtitution of the borough, which regulates all theſe points, differs in an

infinite variety of ways, as the conſtitution of the borough is more or leſs ariſtocratical.

The election of the magiſtracy and council muſt include the deacons, accordingly as the deacons conſtitute part of that council *ex officio*. But the ſubject will be beſt underſtood by referring to the laws regulating theſe elections, and by the rules and exceptions which the deciſions of the court have introduced.

In the laws relative to the election of magiſtrates, where every election depends on rules peculiar to each borough, it has been impoſſible to do more than to preſcribe general rules, and to order the particular complained of in an election to be inſtantly brought to trial in a ſummary manner before the Court of Seſſion. This has been done, *firſt*, by rendering it competent to any magiſtrate or councillor who apprehends any wrong to have been done at an annual election, to bring his action before the Court of Seſſion within eight weeks after the election, for the rectification of ſuch wrong, 7th Geo. II. c. 16. § 7.; *ſecond*, by a more direct enactment, 16th Geo. II. c. 11. § 21., which, in general terms, brings every abuſe under the cognizance of the court, but leaves the particular abuſe to be aſcertained by an examination of the particular *ſet* or conſtitution of the borough, under which the election may have been made.

The diſputes that uſually aroſe out of borough elections came, in general, in the ſhape of double returns, and it was a great object with the legiſlature to put a ſtop to this evil. Accordingly, the 7th Geo. II. c. 16. § 6., declared that every election to be made by any magiſtrates or councillors in oppoſition to the majority, ſhould be *ipſo facto* void; and that every magiſtrate or councillor concurring therein, ſhould forfeit 100*l.* ſterling, to the magiſtrates and councillors from whom they ſo ſeparated, to be recovered on a ſummary complaint before the Court of Seſſion, on 15 days' notice. The ſame point was more particularly regulated by the 16th Geo. II. c. 11., which alſo provides, that no perſon elected by a minority ſhall, upon any pretence, preſume to act as a magiſtrate or councillor, and every perſon offending in that reſpect ſhall forfeit 100*l.* ſterling, to be recovered in the ſame ſummary manner by any of the magiſtrates or councillors elected by the majority, who ſhall ſue for the ſame.

It is to thoſe means, that is, by ſuppreſſing the abuſes common in election caſes, and by baniſhing double returns by the terror of penalties, the legiſlature has truſted for abating much of the litigation and irregularity with which borough elections were attended.

EDINBURGH. The ſtatutory regulations applicable to the election of the city of Edinburgh, are compriſed in the following clauſe of the act of the ſixth of Queen Anne, cap. 6. § 5.: "And as to the manner of election of the fifteen repreſentatives of the royal boroughs, the ſheriff of the ſhire of Edinburgh ſhall, on the receipt of the writ directed to him, forthwith direct his precept to the Lord Provoſt of Edinburgh, to cauſe a burgeſs to be elected for that city, and on receipt of ſuch precept, the city of Edinburgh ſhall elect their member, and their common clerk ſhall certify his name to the ſheriff of Edinburgh, who ſhall annex it to his writ, and return it." The right of electing the members ſent from the city of Edinburgh to the parliament was before the Union, and conſequently is ſtill, in the magiſtrates and town council. The town council conſiſts, in all, of thirty-three perſons, viz. a lord provoſt, four bailies, a dean-of-guild, a treaſurer, an old provoſt, four old bailies, an old dean-of-guild, an old treaſurer, three merchant councillors, two trades councillors, and fourteen deacons of crafts, or companies of tradeſmen. The buſineſs is, in general, conducted by what is called the ordinary council, which conſiſts only of twenty-five, being compoſed of the lord provoſt, the four bailies, the dean-of-guild, the treaſurer, the old provoſt, the four old bailies, the old dean-of-guild, the old treaſurer, the three merchant councillors, the two trades councillors, and ſix out of the fourteen deacons, who are annually choſen to be of the council, according to a decree arbitral of James VI. The extraordinary council conſiſts of the above-named twenty-five, and of the other eight deacons of crafts, who not being members of the ordinary council, are, on that account, termed extraordinary deacons, or deacons not of the council. It is unneceſſary to enter into a minute detail of the different ſteps of procedure in the annual election of the magiſtrates and council. The fourteen deacons are firſt elected by their reſpective corporations or companies, and, upon the next council day, are preſented to the ordinary council of the preceding year, who, out of them, chooſe ſix to be of the council for the year enſuing, upon which the ſix old council deacons remove, and have no further concern in the election. The next ſtep is for the remaining nineteen members of the former council, and the ſix new deacons, to chooſe three merchant councillors and two trades councillors, who, with the then provoſt, bailies, dean-of-guild, and treaſurer, and the provoſt, bailies, dean-of-guild, and treaſurer, to be choſen afterwards, and the ſix new deacons, are to compoſe the ordinary council of twenty-five for the enſuing year. This is done upon the Wedneſday preceding

ceding Michaelmas, and, upon the next Tueſday after that feaſt, the whole buſineſs is finiſhed, by the election of the lord provoſt, bailies, dean-of-guild, and treaſurer, in which the new council, conſiſting then of eighteen, and the old council, reduced to twelve, and the eight extraordinary deacons, making in all thirty-eight, are entitled to vote.

ELECTION IN A DISTRICT OF BOROUGHS. The writ of election, when it comes into the hands of the ſheriff, muſt be indorſed by him on the day he receives it, and within four days he muſt make out a precept to each borough within his juriſdiction. By this precept the commiſſioner to be elected is ordered to meet at the preſiding borough of the diſtrict, upon the 30th day after the *teſte* of the writ, or on the next day if it fall upon a Sunday, for the purpoſe of chooſing a burgeſs to ſerve in parliament. The ſheriff muſt likewiſe cauſe theſe precepts to be delivered within the four days to the chief magiſtrates reſiding in the boroughs for the time; and if he neglect his duty in theſe particulars, he for every offence forfeits 100*l.* ſterling, to any of the magiſtrates of the borough, whoſe precept has not been timeouſly delivered, who ſhall ſue for it. The magiſtrate, to whom the precept is delivered, muſt in like manner indorſe upon its back the day it comes to his hand, and, within two days after, muſt call a meeting of the council of the borough, by giving notice perſonally, or leaving notice at the dwelling-houſe of every councillor then reſiding within it. And in caſe he neglect to do ſo, he for every offence forfeits 100*l.* to any magiſtrate or councillor of the borough who ſhall ſue for it. The council being aſſembled, in conſequence of this notice, appoint a peremptory day for the election of a commiſſioner to go to the preſiding borough of the diſtrict, to chooſe a burgeſs to ſerve in parliament. Two free days muſt intervene between the meeting of council, which appoints the diet for electing the commiſſioners, and the day on which ſuch election is to be made. (16 Geo. II. c. 11. § 42.)

The firſt ſtep at the election of the commiſſioner is, to produce and read the precept from the ſheriff, after which the act of the 7th of Geo. II. c. 24. is likewiſe publicly read; the magiſtrates and councillors then qualify to government, by taking and ſubſcribing the oath of abjuration, if put by any member of the meeting. An oath againſt bribery is then taken by the clerk, and by the electors. After theſe preparatory ſteps, the magiſtrates and councillors preſent at the meeting give their votes; and theſe votes being ſeverally marked by the clerk, the minutes conclude by the council declaring the perſon in whoſe favour the majority ſtands to be their commiſſioner, and by their ordering the clerk to draw up a com-

a commiſſion to ſuch perſon, and to ſign it, and to affix to it the common ſeal of the borough. And the legiſlature has found it neceſſary to guard againſt abuſes, on the part of clerks of royal boroughs, not only by oaths, but the terror of ſeveral ſevere penalties. It is not neceſſary that the commiſſioner be a reſident, or a trafficking merchant within the borough, or that he be in poſſeſſion of any burgage lands, or houſes holding of it; nor need any ſuch qualification be engroſſed in the commiſſion.

The commiſſioners from the ſeveral boroughs of the diſtrict meet together upon the thirtieth day after the *teſte* of the writ, or on the day following, if it fall upon a Sunday, in the town-houſe of the preſiding borough, betwixt eleven and twelve before noon; and, after production of the precepts from the ſheriffs, and reading the act of the ſecond of Geo. II., the commiſſioner from the preſiding borough adminiſters the oaths to government to the common clerk of that borough, who acts as clerk to the meeting, and makes the return to the ſheriff. The clerk next takes an oath againſt bribery and for the faithful execution of his duty. The commiſſioners then produce their reſpective commiſſions, which are read; and if objections be made to any of them, or any proteſts are taken, theſe objections or proteſts ought regularly to be made part of the minutes. If any perſon to whom no commiſſion has been granted, in the manner mentioned in the oath taken by the clerk, appear to inſiſt that he was duly elected a commiſſioner from any borough of the diſtrict, he muſt be admitted to the meeting, and, upon his taking the oaths required by law, which the clerk is empowered to adminiſter, and declaring for whom he would have voted, if he had got a commiſſion properly authenticated, the clerk muſt inſert ſuch declaration in the minutes. This is ordered, that, in caſe of any unfair dealing in making out the commiſſions, it may be known in the Houſe of Commons, in the event of a petition, for whom the commiſſioner appointed by the majority of the town council would have voted, had the clerk of the borough performed his duty, by making out, ſigning, and affixing the ſeal of the borough to a commiſſion in his favour. But the clerk of the preſiding borough, who is the returning officer, is not left at liberty to pay any regard to ſuch declaration, how much reaſon ſoever he may have to be convinced that the perſon who makes it was freely choſen by the majority of the council, and that it was through the malverſation of the clerk alone that he was prevented from producing a proper commiſſion. His office is merely miniſterial. He has no power to correct the abuſes of others, or to judge what is right or wrong in their

their conduct. He must literally adhere to the dictates of the statutes, and is prohibited to admit the votes of any but those who produce commissions, authenticated by the subscriptions of the common clerks, and the common seals of boroughs within the district. He must return to the sheriff the person elected by the major part of the commissioners assembled, whose commissions are so authenticated; and if he neglect or refuse to return such person, or if he return any other person, he, for every such offence, forfeits 500*l.* sterling, to the candidate elected by the majority, and is also subjected to imprisonment for six calendar months, and ever after disabled to hold or enjoy his office of clerk of the presiding borough, as if he were naturally dead.

The commissioners from the several boroughs before proceeding to the election of a burgess to represent the district in parliament, must take the oaths to government, and likewise the oath of bribery introduced by the act of the second of Geo. II., if required, after which they give their votes, and the minutes being signed by the preses and the clerk, the meeting is thereupon dissolved.

The procedure subsequent to the meeting of the commissioners from the several boroughs of the district is similar to that which takes place in the election of representatives of shires. The clerk of the presiding borough returns the person elected by the majority of the commissioners, whose commissions are properly authenticated, to the sheriff within whose jurisdiction the borough is situated. That return must be annexed by the sheriff to the writ; and in the event of his neglecting, or refusing to do so, or of his annexing to the writ a return made by any other person, he, for every such offence, forfeits the sum of 500*l.* sterling, to the candidate returned by the clerk of the presiding borough, to be recovered by him or his executors, by summary complaint before the quarter session.

Remarkable differences between the Parliaments of England and Scotland. Although the Union has terminated the existence of the parliament of Scotland as a distinct body, yet an enumeration of some points in which their forms and proceedings differed from each other will be of use for the understanding of history, and tracing some customs and events.

Form of Sitting. Soon after the introduction of representatives from shires and boroughs, the English parliament was divided into two separate houses, the Lords and the Commons; but, in Scotland, the three estates met always in one house, had one common president, and deliberated jointly upon all

all matters that came before them, whether of a judicial or of a legiſlative nature. It has, however, been doubted whether a bill could paſs into a law, or a tax could be impoſed, if any one of the three eſtates entered a diſſent. This is by no means certain, but even although each of the three eſtates had been, in this reſpect, conſtitutionally independent on one another, and had enjoyed a negative, yet, by their meeting together in one aſſembly, the power and influence of the commons would naturally be kept under much longer in Scotland than in England, where they, at an early period, met in a ſeparate houſe, and had their own ſpeaker or preſident. In a country where there was little commerce or induſtry, and of courſe little wealth, excluſive of landed property, the burgeſſes, and even the ſmall barons, would feel the humbleneſs of their ſituation, and be unfit to cope with high ſpirited nobles, and dignified churchmen, who were poſſeſſed of great eſtates and large revenues. We accordingly find, that, for a long time, few of the ſmall barons gave themſelves the trouble of attending, or even of ſending commiſſioners to parliament. It was the religious diſputes which took place at the Reformation, and during the long conteſt between the epiſcopal and preſbyterian parties, and the zeal of the preachers, that firſt diffuſed the ſpirit of true liberty amongſt the body of the people; but it was not till the Revolution that they met with that attention from government which the rights and privileges of free citizens demanded.

Lords of Articles. The conſtitution of the Scottiſh parliament differed from that of the Engliſh in another material point. In the former, a committee was named at the commencement of each parliament to prepare matters, and to digeſt the bills that were to be brought in; and it came at laſt to be the general practice to lay no buſineſs before the parliament without its being previouſly conſidered in that committee. It is uncertain when this ſelect committee, which was known by the name of *the Lords of the Articles*, was firſt brought in. That it was at leaſt as ancient as the beginning of the reign of James I. ſeems to be evident from the title prefixed to the acts of that prince's firſt parliament, as it ſtands in the edition in Saxon character, commonly known by the name of the *Black Acts*, and publiſhed by authority of Queen Mary. What was the particular mode of electing this committee, or of what number it conſiſted in more ancient times, is not with certainty known; but, from the records, it ſhould ſeem, that, during the reigns of at leaſt the firſt three princes of the name of James, they were appointed, not by the king, but by the eſtates of parliament themſelves; and it is alſo probable

bable that each eſtate would name thoſe of its own body who were to be upon the committee. This might be a very harmleſs committee while it continued to be choſen by the different eſtates, and was not made to encroach or uſurp upon the proceedings of the parliament itſelf. It was not, indeed, an unnatural inſtitution in a country where, as is obſerved by Doctor Robertſon, being too impatient to ſubmit to the drudgery of civil buſineſs, and too impetuous to obſerve the forms or to enter into the details neceſſary in conducting it, made them glad to lay the burden upon a ſmall number, while they themſelves had no other labour than ſimply to give or refuſe their ſanction to the bills which were preſented to them. 'Anciently (ſays Biſhop Burnet) the parliament ſat 'only two days, the firſt and the laſt. On the firſt they 'choſe thoſe who were to ſit on the articles, eight for every 'ſtate. Theſe received all the heads of grievances or articles 'that were brought to them, and formed them into bills as 'they pleaſed; and, on the laſt day of the parliament, theſe 'were all read, and were approved of or rejected by the whole 'body. This was pretended to be done only for the ſhortening and diſpatching of ſeſſions.' This inſtitution came, however, in proceſs of time, to be a great engine in the hands of the crown. The idea being once introduced that nothing could be brought before parliament but through the medium of the lords of the articles, it was only neceſſary for the king, in order to his getting things managed according to his own wiſh, or to prevent a diſagreeable motion from being made the ſubject of deliberation in parliament, to ſecure a majority in this preparatory committee; and that muſt have been a matter of little difficulty, conſidering the manner in which, at leaſt in later times, it was named. Hiſtory informs us, that as far back as 1560, the ſpiritual lords choſe the temporal lords who were to be of this committee; that the temporal choſe the ſpiritual; and that the burgeſſes choſe their members themſelves. This mode of electing the lords of the articles muſt have been favourable to the nation at this particular period, when the chief object was to get free of the tyranny and ſuperſtition of the church of Rome; but it opened a door for extending the influence of the crown, which was made ſtill wider in after times. By the act 1587, cap. 37., it was appointed that an equal number of the lords of the articles, not under ſix nor above ten, ſhould be choſen out of every eſtate; and, by the 114th act of the ſame year, it was farther ordered, that an equal number of the commiſſioners from ſhires ſhould be upon this committee with the commiſſioners from boroughs. But neither of theſe acts tells us in what

what manner the members of this committee were to be choſen; whether each eſtate was to chooſe its own, or whether the plan that had been adopted in 1560 was to be followed. It is, however, pretty evident that James VI. did not think his influence in parliament ſufficiently ſecured by the mode of election of the lords of the articles which then took place; for, in 1594, he obtained an act by which, under the pretence that inconveniences frequently aroſe in parliament by a multitude of doubtful and informal articles and ſupplications being preſented, it was ordained that whenever a parliament ſhould be proclaimed a convention ſhould be appointed of four out of each eſtate, to meet twenty days before the parliament, in order to receive all articles and ſupplications concerning general laws or particular cauſes: that theſe articles and ſupplications ſhould be delivered to the clerk regiſter, who was appointed to preſent them to the convention for their conſideration, in order that all things reaſonable and neceſſary might be formally made and preſented in a book to the lords of the articles at the meeting of parliament; and all impertinent, frivolous, and improper matters be rejected; and that no article or ſupplication wanting a ſpecial title, or not ſubſcribed by the preſenter, ſhould be read or anſwered in the convention or following parliament; with power, however, to his majeſty to preſent ſuch articles as he might think good concerning himſelf or the common weal of the realm, at all times. It is remarkable that no proviſion was made in the act for the choice of this ſelect body, which was to be intruſted with ſo extraordinary powers; and it is juſtly obſerved by an ingenious author, that this ſeeming defect was purely an artifice to ſecure the nomination to the king. They could not be named by parliament, becauſe they were to meet twenty days before it was to ſit; the choice, therefore, of courſe, was to devolve upon the crown. This attempt to give the king a negative before debate, and to reſtrain in ſo high a degree the active power of parliament, though maſked under the artful pretence of preventing frivolous and impertinent matter, could not, after its real tendency came to be diſcovered, be ſubmitted to by the nation without parting with their privileges altogether. It accordingly appears to have been ſoon dropped; and, in 1621, James fell upon a new device to gain an aſcendant in parliament, by getting the lords of the articles named in a manner that could not fail of ſecuring him a majority in that preparatory committee. The biſhops generally devoted to the crown muſt have been particularly ſo at that period. It was therefore of little moment who ſhould name the members of their eſtate that were to be upon the articles. It was of more

more conſequence to the king to be aſſured of getting men to his mind out of the other eſtates. For this end an ingenious device was contrived: the biſhops, as formerly, named eight noblemen, and the noblemen eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen having met together made choice of eight barons or commiſſioners from ſhires, and of eight burgeſſes; ſo that, in effect, the nomination of the whole devolved upon the biſhops, on whom the king could rely with confidence. This committee was aboliſhed during the reign of Charles the Firſt, and during the uſurpation; it was reſtored in its full ſplendour at the Reſtoration, but the Revolution definitively deſtroyed it. Although this committee is conſidered as a diſtinguiſhing feature in the parliament of Scotland, yet ſomething ſimilar to it is found in the parliament of England in early times. The great barons delighting to reſide at their caſtles in the country, and having little taſte for tedious political inveſtigations, the ſeſſions of parliament were for ſome time very ſhort in England as well as in Scotland. In order, therefore, to get the neceſſary buſineſs quickly diſpatched, the laws which the king wiſhed to be enacted were drawn up by the council or by the judges in the form of ſtatutes, and after being read in parliament, were at once either paſſed or rejected. Certain perſons were alſo appointed by the king ſome time before the meeting of a parliament, to receive and try ſuch petitions as were to be preſented from the ſeveral parts of the kingdom. And, on the firſt day of the parliament, proclamation was made at the door of the houſe, and at other public places, that all perſons who had any petitions to preſent ſhould give them in to thoſe who had been appointed to receive them.

Supplies. Another difference between the parliaments of the two kingdoms, worthy of remark, is, that in England the granting general ſubſidies or aids to the crown was at leaſt for ſome centuries before the Union in a manner committed ſolely to the Commons; whereas, in Scotland, all the three eſtates went hand in hand in that as well as in other matters. It is true that in England every money bill required the concurrence of the Lords as well as the Commons; but no ſuch bill could originate in the Houſe of Lords; and, although they might refuſe to concur, they had no power to make any alterations or amendments. It may therefore with propriety be ſaid, that, in England the Commons had the ſole power of impoſing taxes, but for many obvious reaſons derived from the ſtate of property, the form of legiſlative ſitting and other cauſes, this could not be the caſe in Scotland.

Conventions. It is likewiſe to be obſerved, that, beſides regular parliaments, the kings of Scotland were wont, upon particular

particular emergencies which required immediate deliberation and execution, ſuch as a ſudden invaſion or the neceſſity of raiſing a ſum of money to anſwer a ſudden exigency, to call what were termed *Conventions of the Eſtates*. On ſuch occaſions there was no neceſſity for any formal citation of all thoſe who had a right to ſit in parliament: the king called any number that could be ſpeedily drawn together, and their powers were limited to that particular buſineſs for which they were called. The famous aſſembly which in 1689 declared that James VII. of Scotland had forfeited his right to the crown, and ſettled it upon William and Mary, was denominated a meeting of the eſtates. It conſiſted of the laſt parliament of James, and was called by circular letters from the Prince of Orange, under his hand and ſeal. The Duke of Hamilton was choſen preſident; and a letter having been preſented to them from King James, they, before opening it, declared and enacted, 'That notwithſtanding of any thing that may be contained in that letter for diſſolving them, or impeding their procedure, yet that they are a free and lawful meeting of the eſtates, and will continue undiſſolved until they ſettle and ſecure the Proteſtant religion, the government, laws, and liberties of the kingdom.' This declaration was ſubſcribed by ſeven biſhops, 42 peers, 50 barons, and the like number of burgeſſes.

PARLIAMENT HOUSE. The parliament houſe was begun in 1631, and completed in 1640; it is built in the ſhape of the letter L; 133 feet long by 98 broad in the wideſt end, and 60 in the narroweſt; and from the ſingularity of the area on which it is reared, although the buildings are 60 feet high, yet, upon the north and eaſt ſides, which are the main fronts, it is but about 40 feet above the ground. The great hall is 122 feet long by 49 broad. Over one of its entrances, facing the eaſt are the arms of Scotland well cut on ſtone, with Mercy and Truth for ſupporters; with the inſcription, *Stant his felicia regna*; and under the arms, *Unio Unionum*, relating not only to the two crowns, but ſignifying that their influence was neceſſary to the maintenance of it. The room where parliament met had a high throne for the ſovereign or royal commiſſioner, with benches on each ſide for the nobility and biſhops, and forms conveniently placed in the middle for the commoners. Without the area was a pulpit for ſermons on particular occaſions, behind which was a large partition for others, beſides the members, to hear the ſermons and debates. The houſe is now uſed for the ſittings of the Courts of Seſſion and of Juſticiary.

OFFICERS

OFFICERS OF STATE.

LORD KEEPER OF THE GREAT SEAL. Before the Union, Scotland had a lord chancellor, whoſe office was analogous to that of the lord chancellor of England. He was the chief in matters of juſtice; and in the laws of Malcolm II. he is placed before all other officers; and from theſe it appears, that he had the principal direction of the chancery, or chancellary. He had the cuſtody of the king's ſeal, and was the king's moſt intimate counſellor. James VI. ordained that the chancellor ſhould have the firſt place and rank in the nation, *ratione officii*, by virtue whereof he preſided in the parliament; and in all courts of judicature. The office of lord chancellor was aboliſhed by the Union, there being no farther uſe for the judicial part; and to anſwer all the other parts a lord keeper of the great ſeal was appointed, with a ſalary of 3000*l.* a year.

Under the lord keeper are a *deputy keeper and king's writer*, and two *uſhers*.

LORD KEEPER OF THE PRIVY SEAL. This office was eſtabliſhed by James I. on his return from captivity in England, for the eaſe of the lord chancellor, and in imitation of what he had ſeen eſtabliſhed at the court of England. This office was not aboliſhed at the Union; the ſalary is 3000*l.* a year; the *deputy* has 400*l.* a year, and there are two *writers*.

KEEPER OF THE SIGNET. This office is equal in emolument to thoſe mentioned above, the ſalary being 3000*l.* and the keeper having a *deputy* and *ſub keeper*.

LORD SECRETARY. This office in Scotland was nearly the ſame with that of the great prothonatory, which agreed with the *Primiceriis Notarium* amongſt the Romans; theſe were of the prince's council, and acted therein as his ſecretaries. The lord ſecretary was conſtantly to attend the king's perſon, receive all petitions and memorials, and write the king's anſwers upon them. All letters patent paſſed through his hand, and were drawn up by him; and all the king's letters, diſpatches, warrants, orders, &c. were written out, and generally ſubſcribed by him. He was anſwerable, if they contained any thing contrary to the laws of the land, or derogatory to the king's honour and dignity. The lord ſecretary took precedence of all of his rank; and whatever his qualities were, he took place of the four leſſer officers of ſtate. This office was kept up after the Union, but ſince the year 1746, there has been no ſecretary of ſtate for Scotland.

LORD REGISTER. The lord clerk regiſter was of old the principal clerk in the kingdom, from whom all other clerks, who were his deputies, derived their immediate authority, and he himſelf acted as clerk to the parliament and council. He was called *clericus rotulorum*, becauſe, of old, the proceedings of parliament, and minutes and judgments of other courts, were engroſſed on rolls of parchment; hence they were called *rotuli parliamenti*; but afterward they were ordered to be written in books, and the reſpective clerks ordained to tranſmit theſe books to the clerk regiſter, to be preſerved by him in the public archives or regiſter; whence came the name of *cuſtos rotulorum*, by which he is often called in hiſtory. By the treaty of Union, the preſervation of the regiſters in the ſame manner is particularly provided for; and the return of the election of the ſixteen Scots peers to the Britiſh parliament, is ordered to be made by the clerk regiſter, or by two of the clerks of Seſſion deputed by him for that purpoſe.

The office was formerly during pleaſure, but in 1777 it was granted for life. The ſalary is 1200*l.* and the regiſter has ſix deputies, and two deputy keepers of the records.

LORD HIGH CONSTABLE. This was an officer of great antiquity and dignity. He has two grand prerogatives; firſt, the keeping of the king's ſword, which the king, at his promotion, when he ſwears fealty, delivers to him naked; hence the badge of the conſtable is a naked ſword. Second, the abſolute and unlimited command of the king's armies while in the field, in the abſence of the king: but this command does not extend to caſtles and garriſons. He was likewiſe judge of all crimes committed within two leagues of the king's houſe, which precinct was called the *Chalmer of Peace*. The juriſdiction of this office came at laſt to be exerciſed only as to crimes during the time of parliament, which ſome extended likewiſe to all general conventions. This office has been but in few families: The Morvils enjoyed it under David I. and his grand children Malcolm and William. By them it came by deſcent to the Lords of Galloway; and from them in the ſame manner to John Baliol. By Robert Bruce it was beſtowed on Sir Gilbert Hay of Errol, whoſe hereditary ſucceſſor was Charles Earl of Errol, high conſtable of Scotland at the time of the Union.

All theſe offices are ſtill in being, or have been retained ſince the Union, but thoſe which follow were by that compact rendered uſeleſs, and aboliſhed altogether.

THE LORD HIGH TREASURER. This office was eſtabliſhed in Scotland on the return of James I. from captivity. The king's revenue being intirely in the management of the treaſurer, his buſineſs was to examine and paſs the accounts of the

ſheriffs, and others concerned in levying it; to receive reſignations of lands, and hereditaments in uſe to be reſigned into the king's hands, and to reviſe, compound, and paſs ſignatures, gifts, tutory, &c., all which is now committed to the court of exchequer in Scotland. In 1617 the treaſurer was ranked by James VI. as the firſt officer of ſtate, and in 1623, when he determined the precedency of his counſellors, he was placed next to the chancellor; in 1663 he was declared preſident of the exchequer. The office of *comptroller*, which was ſometimes joined with that of treaſurer, and deſignated *computorum rotulator*, and that of *collector* of the new augmentations, which were both diſtinct offices from that of the treaſurer, were all conjoined into one by James VI. and exerciſed by the treaſurer till 1685, when the treaſury was put in commiſſion.

THE LORD TREASURER DEPUTE. The commiſſion of this officer ran in the ſame terms with that given to the treaſurer principal, or the commiſſioners of treaſury: his office was chiefly to be a check upon them; and in abſence of the treaſurer and lord chancellor, he claimed to be preſident of the exchequer.

COMPTROLLER. The duties of this officer reſembled thoſe of the treaſurer of the houſehold in England: he was an officer of ſtate, till the order of parliament reſtraining the number to eight beſides the chancellor, whereof the maſter of requeſts was one, now confounded with the ſecretary; and ſo the treaſurer came into the place of the comptroller.

LORD PRESIDENT. Under this head, it is fit to notice the conſtitution and power of the privy council of Scotland. The privy council was looked upon as the ſpring of the government; for all proclamations for calling parliaments and conventions of the ſtates, and for the more effectual execution of the laws and preſerving the peace and tranquillity of the kingdom, were iſſued by the king with the advice of this council, and in it the management of all ſtate affairs was lodged. This council was conſtituted by commiſſion from the king under the great ſeal, and he could remove or add to the number by a letter under his ſign manual. The great officers of ſtate were members by virtue of their office: and if neither the lord chancellor nor lord preſident was preſent, the members (whereof nine made a quorum) elected a preſes, *pro tempore*, or *pro hac vice*. This court had its own ſignet and ſeal, two principal clerks, macers, and other officers; it formerly had power to judge in matters of *right*; but it was afterwards reſtrained to matters of *fact*. However, its great work conſiſted in taking care of the peace and welfare of the kingdom; in ſuppreſſing rebellions; in puniſhing tumults and notorious breaches of the peace; in

raiſing the militia; granting commiſſions, office, and ſword; and in caſe of rebellion, in granting commiſſions of lieutenancy and juſticiary, and in ordering the advancing of money out of the treaſury required in ſuch emergencies. It could mitigate and alter inferior puniſhments, adjourn the ſeſſions or any other court, and aſſign the times and places where they ſhould ſit; raiſed or lowered the value of money; impoſed fines or tolls at bridges and ferries; it could ſequeſter pupils and allow them alimony, and allow a ſeparate maintenance to wives ill treated by their huſbands. It ordered noblemen as well as others, who abſconded or evaded captions for debt, to deliver themſelves up to one of the king's caſtles under pain of treaſon. The explication of acts of parliament, and the preſcribed methods for putting them in execution (not otherwiſe provided for in the ſtatutes), was uſually remitted by the king to the privy council. All their proclamations, and acts, and orders founded upon law, were binding on the ſubject; and when the public ſafety required it, the king and privy council might uſe a latitude of power ſuitable to the occaſion for ſpeedy redreſs. And as the power, honour, and burthen of the office of a privy counſellor were great; ſo it was death by law to invade or purſue them for doing the king's ſervice. This court was aboliſhed at the Union, but the office of lord preſident is ſtill retained. In antient times, he took place next to the chancellor and had a penſion: under him were the collector general, director of the chancery, and the director of the rolls.

Lord High Admiral. Although the Scots never relied in any great degree on their navy, their high admiral had extenſive powers. He commanded the king's ſhips and ſailors, and had the inſpection of all the ſea-ports, harbours, and ſea-coaſts in the kingdom; and he had a particular tribunal, where the judges appointed by him decided all cauſes relating to ſea affairs, and that according to a particular code of naval law. His powers likewiſe extended to the cognizance of all crimes committed upon the ſea, or in the ports and creeks thereof, or in freſh waters and navigable rivers, ſo far as the ſea flows and ebbs. This he executed by an officer commiſſioned by him, and called the deputy judge admiral, who likewiſe judged in matters purely commercial, as ariſing from the ſea. Adam Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, was made hereditary lord admiral of Scotland; and, upon his forfeiture it was conferred in like manner on Francis Stewart, Earl of Bothwell; but he being alſo forfeited, James VI. granted it to his couſin, the Duke of Lenox and Richmond. The male line of this family becoming extinct in 1672, Charles II. gave it to his natural ſon, whom he

he created Duke of Lenox and Richmond; but he reſigned it into the hands of the crown in 1703. Since the treaty of Union, only a vice admiral has been appointed, and that only to act as a judge in civil affairs relating to naval and commercial concerns in Scotland.

LORD CHAMBERLAIN. The great chamberlain of Scotland was ranked by King Malcolm as the third great officer of the crown, and was called *camerarius domini regis*. Before a treaſurer was appointed, it was his duty to collect the revenue of the crown, and he diſburſed the money for the maintenance of the king's houſehold. From the time that a treaſurer was appointed, his province was limited to the boroughs throughout the kingdom, where he was a ſort of juſtice general, as he had a power of judging in all crimes committed within the borough, and of the crime of foreſtalling. He was to hold chamberlain-ayres every year. He was ſupreme judge, nor could any of his decrees be queſtioned by any inferior judicatory. His ſentences were put in execution by the magiſtrates of the boroughs. He alſo regulated the price of proviſions within the borough, and the fees of the workmen in the mint houſe. The ſmallneſs of his ſalary, which was only 200*l.*, and his great powers, had no doubt been the cauſes of much oppreſſion in this office, ſo that the chamberlain-ayre was called rather a legal robbery than a court of juſtice; and when the combined lords ſeized James VI. Aug. 24. 1582, and carried him to Ruthven caſtle, they iſſued a ploclamation in the king's name, diſcharging the chamberlain-ayres, then to be kept. The chamberlain had great fees ariſing from the profits of eſcheats, fines, tolls and cuſtoms. This office was granted heritably to the family of Stewart, Duke of Lenox; and when their male line failed, Charles II. conferred it in like manner on his natural ſon, the Duke of Monmouth; and on his forfeiture, it went to the Duke of Lenox; but that family ſurrendered it to the crown in 1703.

EARL MARISCHAL. Mariſchal is ſuppoſed to be a German word, meaning a maker of camps; and the axe, which he bears as the badge of his office, was the inſtrument with which he broke ground, though this part of his office came to be delegated to *Mariſchal du Camp*. This officer took no place by virtue of his office, but according to his precedency in the degrees of nobility. He commanded the cavalry, whereas the conſtable commanded the whole army. They ſeem to have had a ſort of joint command, as of old all orders were addreſſed "To our Conſtable and Mariſchal." The office of earl mariſchal has never been out of the noble family of Keith. It was reſerved at the Union; and when the heritable juriſ-

dictions were bought, it was in the crown, being forfeited by the rebellion of George Keith, Earl Mariſchal, in 1715.

MASTER OF THE HORSE. This was in ancient times an officer of the king, but became diſcontinued when the union of the crowns ſent the ſovereign to reſide in London.

GENTRY.

Under this head will be conſidered the different orders of the laity, who rank below the nobility.

KNIGHTS OF THE THISTLE. An account of this order is given in vol. i. p. 456.

BARONETS. The order of baronet in Scotland was firſt erected for advancing the plantation of Nova Scotia in America, and for ſettling a colony there, to which the aid obtained from theſe knights was appropriated: this order was deſigned by James VI. before his death, but not actually founded till 1625, when Charles I. diſpoſed to each of theſe knights a certain portion of land in Nova Scotia; and for their further encouragement, ordained that heretable ſtate and ſtile of baronet, to be enjoyed by every of theſe gentlemen who hazarded their lives for the good and increaſe of that plantation, and their heirs male for ever, with priority and precedency before all knights called *equites aurati*, all leſſer barons, commonly called lairds, and before all other gentlemen (except Sir William Alexander, his majeſty's lieutenant of Nova Scotia, and his heirs, their wives and children), and that to the chriſtian name of theſe knights ſhould be added the title ſir; and his ſons' wives ſhould enjoy the title and appellation of lady, madam, and dame reſpectively, according to the uſual phraſe in ſpeaking and writing; the king promiſing that the number of baronets in Scotland ſhould not exceed 150, and that he would not create any other dignity or order ſuperior to it. Further to adorn this order, they were allowed to wear and carry about their necks, an orange tawney ſilk ribbon, whereon was to hang pendant in a ſcutcheon, *argent*, a *ſaltire*, *azure*, and thereon an inſcutcheon of the arms of Scotland, with an imperial crown above the ſcutcheon, and incircled with this motto, *Pax mentis honeſtæ gloria*; all which grants are regiſtered in the books of *Lion king of arms*, and the heralds, there to remain *ad futuram rei memoriam*. But after the ſelling of Nova Scotia to the French, this order became an honourable title in Scotland, conferred at the king's pleaſure without limitation of number. From the cauſe of their creation, they are not unfrequently called *Nova Scotia Baronets*.

Knights

Knights Banneret, *Knights* and *Eſquires* in *Scotland* had the ſame ſignification and rank as in England: *Laird* was a peculiar and undefined title, generally allowed by courteſy to the poſſeſſors of land who were not intitled to any rank among the nobility, or the eſtabliſhed orders. It cannot be deemed wonderful that ſuch a diſtinction ſhould be given in a country where ſo many can boaſt of illuſtrious blood, and where, even to this day, it is uſual in familiar ſpeech to call the poſſeſſor of land by the name of his eſtate.

HERALD'S OFFICE. There has been from ancient times a college of arms, deſigned to give coats of armour and other enſigns of honour to ſuch as had done ſignal ſervices to their king and country; to prevent the aſſuming of arms by ſuch as have no titles to them; and to take care of proper diſtinctions between the arms of the chiefs of families, and their cadets. The chief of this office is ſtyled, *Lord Lion*, *King at arms*, becauſe the lion is the royal bearing of Scotland, and he is created by patent under the great ſeal. He attended formerly on the parliament, aſſiſted on coronations, and ſtill walks or rides in proceſſions and cavalcades: he is at all ſolemn proclamations, and wears on thoſe occaſions a rich coat of arms, and ſometimes a long crimſon robe; and at coronations he wore a gilt crown. He has a rich foot mantle, and ſuitable horſe ornaments at cavalcades, and *batroon ſemée of thiſtles*: he is principal herald of the order of St. Andrew, or the Thiſtle, and wears the order in gold about his neck, hanging down on his breaſt. He has power to give and difference arms; admits all the heralds, purſuivants, and meſſengers at arms; and of old, admitted both macers and trumpets. He holds two ſolemn head-courts in the year, on the 6th of May, and the 6th of November, and at other times as often as he has occaſion to call one, when all meſſengers are obliged to appear before him. He atteſts all genealogies under his hand and ſeal, which bear faith abroad as well as at home. He and the other heralds and purſuivants, according to their reſpective ſtations, denounce war, and proclaim peace, command the ſubjects to lay down their arms, make citations in actions of treaſon, and do all things proper to the office of an herald here, or in any other kingdom; beſides which, *Lion* and his *brethren* enjoy many other privileges, honours, dignities, and immunities. The ſalary of Lion is 600*l.*, and he has a *clerk* and *keeper of the records*.

There are ſix heralds, *Albany*, *Rotheſay*, *Snadown*, *Marchmount*, *Yla*, and *Roſs*. Salaries 25*l.* each.

There are alſo ſix purſuivants, *Unicorn*, *Kintire*, *Bute*, *Dingwall*, *Ormond*, and *Carrick*. Salaries 16*l.* each.

The heralds and purſuivants take place according to their patents.

There are alſo *ſix trumpets*, called the *king's ordinary trumpets*, who are obliged to attend upon the orders of the herald's office.

THE CHURCH.

The ſimilarity of the ſuperſtitions which prevailed on the neighbouring continent and in the Britiſh iſlands, is emphatically mentioned by Julius Cæſar, as a ſtrong proof of the common origin of the Gauliſh people of both. The Druidiſm of the ancient Britons obviouſly derived its ſource from the practices of the moſt early times. The barbarous ſacrifices of human victims, however, were too general in the firſt ages to be peculiar to the Britiſh prieſts. The moſt uſual objects of their worſhip were woods and waters, fires and rocks. The ſame natural objects were equally the gods of their idolatry in North Britain, as they had been in the moſt ſouthern diſtricts of our iſland.

The prieſts and the people equally aſſembled in the ſacred groves, and within the circles of ſtones, to perform their unhallowed rites. The ſtone monuments which ſtill remain in North Britain, are indubitable proofs of the ſimilarity of the worſhip which was practiſed there, as well as in South Britain. Within the Pictiſh territories, there long remained the ſacred groves and ſtone circles, the areas whereof the ſuperſtitious vulgar called holy ground, which they refuſed to apply to any civil uſe. Some of the firſt Chriſtians converted thoſe ſacred incloſures into chapels. As the Scoto-Iriſh, who came in upon the Picts after the year 843, had long become Chriſtians, none of thoſe Druid monuments can be attributed to their unſullied hands. The era of Chriſtianity and the epoch of the declenſion of Druidiſm may be conſidered as the ſame. Auguſtus proſcribed the Druid rites to the Roman citizens; Tiberius enforced the prohibition of his predeceſſor; and Claudius aboliſhed the religion of the Druids, within the ample extent of Gaul, during the year 43. As the Romans extended their conqueſts in Britain, the practices of the Druids were either proſcribed by power, or diſuſed by neglect; yet, in Wales, in Ireland, and in Caledonia, Druidiſm continued to maintain its influence, till the lights of Chriſtianity penetrated into their darkeſt receſſes.

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The religion of Chriſt gained upon the world, in defiance of perſecution, during three centuries of adverſity. With the acceſſion of Conſtantine, in 306, it may be ſaid to have been eſtabliſhed, within the Roman empire, though not with all the temporal rights which it afterwards acquired. In Britain, it appears to have very ſoon aſſumed the ſame form of policy, as it had naturally acquired within the other diſtricts of the Roman ſtate, and, as early as the year 314, three biſhops actually appeared from Britain at the council of Arles, the repreſentatives of three dioceſes, which were probably commenſurate with three of the Roman provinces in this iſland.

Yet is there reaſon to believe, that the benign influence of Chriſtianity had been felt in thoſe parts of North Britain, which were inacceſſible to the Roman power, as ſoon as the beginning of the third century. The Romanized Britons of Valentia, who are called the Southern Picts by Bede and the contemporary writers of the middle ages, were converted from their ancient ſuperſtitions, at the commencement of the fifth century. This reformation they owed to Ninian, who was born, about the year 360, of noble parentage, in the country of the Novantes, near the *Leucophibia* of Ptolomy. He founded a monaſtery at Whithern, which ſupplied the country with ſucceſſive teachers, and erected a church, which is emphatically mentioned by Bede as the firſt that was built of ſtone; and as having from this circumſtance obtained the appropriate name of *Candida Caſa*.

During the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, before the Chriſtian votaries had yet been formed into a regular church, which could afford protection to its paſtors, their moſt early teachers were obliged to ſeek ſhelter in caves, from the heady rudeneſs of half informed followers. We may thus trace to its origin the cauſe why ſo many of the names of pariſhes, in North Britain and Ireland, have in them the prefix Kil, from the Britiſh *Cil*, a *retreat*, a refuge, and the Iriſh *Kil*; ſignifying, ſecondarily, a church.

Ireland, which was deſtined to furniſh religious inſtructors to the Caledonian regions, was herſelf converted by Britiſh miſſionaries, as early as 432. And the Iriſh coloniſts, who were conducted to Kintire by Fergus in 503, were thus enabled to bring Chriſtianity with them, and to interweave it with their polity. The eccleſiaſtical patron of the Iriſh emigrants was Ciaran, a prelate of great fame, to whoſe name ſeveral churches in Argyle and Ayrſhire were dedicated; but the Iriſh coloniſts ſeem to have been too much occupied with their own temporal affairs, to allow them leiſure for making converts beyond the narrow extent of their little kingdom.

kingdom. The converting of the northern Picts was reserved for a greater perſonage. As he came, not to deſtroy, but to ſave; and not to conquer, but to civilize, Columba will always be remembered as the diſintereſted benefactor of North Britain. Born of a family of the higheſt rank in Ireland, the couſin of Scoto-Iriſh kings, Columba early dedicated his life to religion during a religious period: and being involved in the troubles of a tumultuous people, he departed from Ireland for the colony of his kindred, in 563, at the age of forty-two, after founding ſeveral monaſteries in his native land.

Columba was deeply tinctured with the ſpirit of monkiſm, which in his times was widely ſpread in Europe. For the ſite of the monaſtery, which was deſigned by him to be the ſchool of the Caledonian people, he caſt his eyes on a ſolitary iſle lying in the Scottiſh ſea, near the ſouth-weſt angle of Mull, and ſettled in Hy with his twelve diſciples. They now neither fought nor loved any thing of this world, as Bede relates. They laboured two years with their own hands in erecting huts, and building a church of very ſlight materials. The Columbans, though they were called *monks*, were a body of regular clergy, except thoſe who were chiefly employed in corporal labour, and thoſe who were conſigned to public penance. They lived under the ſtrict diſcipline which Columba had eſtabliſhed as the rule of his monaſteries. After thus forming his eſtabliſhment, Columba undertook the difficult enterprize of converting a people, thoſe Picts who dwelt northward of Drum Albin. The power of prophecy, the gift of miracles, which were arrogated by Columba, and are related by his biographers, are proofs of the ignorance and ſimplicity of the age. The Picts conſiſted of clans who had advanced little from a ſavage ſtate, and who were governed by Bridei, the ſon of Mailcon, a prince of great influence, but of little civilization. The patience and perſeverance of Columba converted the king; and the prince, by his perſuaſion and authority, converted the people. Columba and his diſciples now journeyed for the uſeful end of inſtruction through every part of the Pictiſh territories, and even penetrated into the Orkney iſles: they at length eſtabliſhed monaſteries within every diſtrict of the Caledonian country, while pariſhes did not yet exiſt, with the deſign of ſending out a ſucceſſion of adequate inſtructors for an uninformed people.

Columba during four and thirty years of active benevolence continued to ſend out his paſtors to inform the ignorant, to ſuperintend the cells which his policy had eſtabliſhed, and to compoſe

compoſe the haſty diſputes of rugged chieftains. The contemporary princes often felt the influence of his councils, ſometimes profited from the interpoſition of his authority, and, at length, carried their veneration ſo far as to attend him to receive the ceremony of coronation from his hands. Columba died on the 9th of June, 597, leaving his monaſtery firmly ſettled, a people converted by his labours from paganiſm to Chriſtianity, and a name for the celebration of every age.

The Chriſtian religion, being thus eſtabliſhed, was exerciſed according to the forms of the church of Rome; but the church of Scotland owned no ſuperior: it was in vain attempted to bring it within the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of York; all ſuch endeavours were effectually reſiſted, the church being firmly maintained in its independence, as the daughter, *nullo mediante*, of that of Rome.

CULDEES. One of their eſtabliſhments, which, although it does not appear to have been peculiar to Scotland, is moſt celebrated there, was that of the Culdees, of whom the following account is given by Mr. Chalmers.

"The ſecular clergy ſeldom or never appear in the Scotiſh hiſtory; during the Scotiſh period, the biſhops, indeed, and the abbots appeared very conſpicuous, and the Culdees we ſhall diſcover in their cells, though their origin be extremely obſcure: they were neither mentioned by Bede, nor known to Nannius, nor acknowledged by Adamnan: yet were not the Culdees peculiar to North Britain: they were equally recognized by the ſame name in the eccleſiaſtical ſyſtems of Ireland, of Wales, and of England. The Culdees were undoubtedly monks in all thoſe countries, as the name implies, though they acquired their diſtinguiſhed appellation at different epochs in thoſe ſeveral nations *. In the united kingdom of the Picts and Scots, the name ſeems to have been unknown, if we may determine from the ſilence of Bede, of Nennius, and Adamnan, till the eſtabliſhment of a monaſtery at St. Andrews; and here were they firſt diſtinguiſhed by the ſignificant name of *Culdees*. They were obviouſly an order of Celtic monks, who performed the functions of ſecular prieſts among the Celtic people under a Celtic government; as the faith and diſcipline of the church

* Their name was probably derived from the notion of their retreat and ſecluſion. In the Welſh, *cêl*, which means ſhelter, a *hiding*, would form the name, in the plural, thus: *celydi*, *celydiaud*, *celydion*, *celydwys*. In the Gaelic, *culdee* ſignifies a monk, a hermit; the name of *cuildeach* is commonly given at this day, ſays the learned and reverend Dugal Campbell, of the Iſle of Mull, to perſons who are not fond of ſociety. Stat. Account, v. xiv. p. 200. In the Gaelic, alſo, *ceile* ſignifies a ſervant: hence, *ceile de*, the ſervant of God; *de* being the genitive of *dia*, God. See O'Brien's Dict. in vo. The topography of North Britain does not throw any light on the obſcure name of the Culdees; as there does not appear to be any appellation, in the maps of Scotland, which bears the leaſt analogy to the Culdean monks.

had

had come down to them from Conſtantin and Kellach. Of Culdees, there exiſted in North Britain during the Scotiſh period, religious houſes at Abernethy, Dunkeld, St. Andrews, Dunblane, Brechin, Mortlach, Aberdon, Monymuſk, Loch-Leven, Portmoak, Dumfermlin, Scone, and at Kirkaldie. This form of a religious eſtabliſhment ſeems to have exiſted among the Picts and Scots, even from the age and example of Columba. During the Pictiſh period, there was endowed at *Abernethy* a religious houſe, which was dedicated to Brigid. Here it long flouriſhed in uſefulneſs, under the patronage of the Scotiſh kings. And here the Culdees continued till they were ſuppreſſed in the thirteenth century, after religious novelty had removed many ancient foundations. 2. *Dunkeld* owed the erection of a religious houſe to the pious gratitude of Kenneth, the ſon of Alpin. It immediately aſſumed the form which was known and practiſed, within the united kingdom, during that age. The houſe was filled with Culdees, who were governed by an abbot; and, with them, reſided a biſhop, who performed independently the functions of his office. The abbots of Dunkeld for many ages acted a conſpicuous part, in the bloody ſcenes of the Scotiſh government. And the monaſtery, with the Culdees and their abbot, continued amidſt many reforms till the maiden reign of Malcolm IV. 3. At *St. Andrews* a religious houſe with its uſual concomitants exiſted, when the union of the Scots and Picts took place. The abbots here were alſo diſtinct; and they had the honour to enumerate ſeveral kings in their liſt. Here the Culdees maintained their purity and uſefulneſs for many an age. A priory was founded at this ancient ſeat by Alexander I. And canons regular were introduced here, in 1140, by Robert the Biſhop of Saint Andrews. 4. At *Brechin* a religious houſe was ſettled as early as 994. The Culdees of the monaſtery of Brechin continued for many ages to act as the dean and chapter of this epiſcopate, and they ſeem not to have been reformed, by the introduction of the canons regular, till the acceſſion of Robert Bruce. 5. The religious houſe at *Dunblane* is of very ancient foundation. The Culdees and their prior retained poſſeſſion, and here performed their functions, during ſeveral ages of reform. They were ſuperſeded, however, by canons regular, ſometime before the middle of the thirteenth century. 6. A religious houſe, which was dedicated to *St. Servan*, was erected in the earlieſt times on an iſlet in Loch-Leven. Succeſſive kings, Macbeth, Malcolm III, and Edgar, and his brother Ethelred, with the biſhops Maldevin and Modoch, were all ſtudious to endow the Culdees of Loch-Leven. Here they performed their uſual functions, till the reforming hand of

David

David I. fell upon them. To the priory of St. Andrews, this pious prince gave the monaſtery of St. Servan, with the iſland of Loch-Leven; and with an intimation, that if the Culdees would live peaceably, they ſhould be protected; but if they ſhould reſiſt the royal grant, they would be expelled the holy iſle of Servan. The Culdees were expelled; though it is not eaſy to aſcertain the time and circumſtances of that event, which aroſe from the violence of the canons, and the connivance of the biſhop, who uſually ſupported the canons againſt the Culdees. 7. *Portmoak*, on the eaſtern margin of Loch-Leven and the northern efflux of the Leven river, was founded during the ninth century by Ungus, the Pictiſh king, a religious houſe. Here the Culdees under the uſual rule of their abbot performed their accuſtomed functions for many a ſavage reign. They were reformed during the general reformation of the worthy David. They too became the prey of the prior and canons of Saint Andrews, though the time and circumſtances of the depredation cannot now be aſcertained. 8. The ſplendid abbey of *Dumfermlin* owed its inconſiderable foundation to Malcolm Ceanmore; its completion to Alexander I.; and its reform to David I. The monaſtery of Dumfermlin was dedicated, like the other Culdean eſtabliſhments, to the Holy Trinity. Here the Culdees, with their abbot, diſcharged their uſual duties during ſeveral reigns: and David I. who lived much with Henry I. of England, upon his acceſſion introduced among the Celtic Culdees thirteen Engliſh monks from Canterbury. 9. We may eaſily ſuppoſe, that when the *fatal ſtone* was transferred by Kenneth, the ſon of Alpin, from Argyle to *Scone*, a religious houſe would be eſtabliſhed at this ancient metropolis. A Culdean church was here dedicated in the earlieſt times, to the Holy Trinity, like other Culdean monaſteries. The Culdees were at length reformed, in 1115, by Alexander I.; who diſmiſſed the Culdean churchmen, and committed the cuſtody of the church of Scone to canons regular of Saint Auguſtine, with a prior at their head. 10. At *Monymuſk*, in Aberdeenſhire, was alſo in ancient times an eſtabliſhment of Culdees. Here, with their prior, they performed their uſual functions for many ages without complaint. The ſuperintendance of this houſe was transferred by David I., while he panted for reform, to the biſhops of Saint Andrews. The ſeveral pretenſions of the dependants and ſuperior ſoon produced controverſies. Theſe diſputes were ſettled, by a reference from Innocent III., in 1212, which gave them a new conſtitution, yet did the Biſhop of St. Andrews, in oppoſition to a ſolemn promiſe, ſuppreſs thoſe Culdees, and place canons regular in their room at Monymuſk, which became thenceforth

a cell of the priory of St. Andrews. 11. In addition to all thoſe Culdean houſes, there appears to have been an eſtabliſhment of the Culdees, at *Kirkcaldie*, in Fife; whence the place was named Kil-eledei, which was changed during the Scoto-Saxon period, to Kirkcaledie.

« Such then were the originals, the nature, and the end of the Culdees in North Britain. Yet ſyſtem has concurred with ignorance, in ſuppoſing that the Culdees were peculiar to the united kingdom of the Picts and Scots, and actually poſſeſſed rights and exerciſed powers which were inconſiſtent with the eſtabliſhed laws of the univerſal church in that age. A retroſpective view of eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, from the epoch of the introduction of Chriſtianity into North Britain, would ſhow to a diſcerning eye, that the doctrines, liturgical forms, and monkiſh diſcipline of the Britons, the Iriſh, the Scots, and the Picts, were extremely ſimilar; as all thoſe people were indeed congenerous."

Establishment. During the prevalence of the Roman Catholic religion, Scotland had two archbiſhops and twelve biſhops; nine convents of Benedictine monks; two convents of Cluniac monks; fourteen convents of Ciſtercian monks: four convents of reformed Ciſtercians, called the Valley of Reeds; nineteen convents of Auſtin friars; five convents of premonſtratenſian monks; three convents of reformed Auguſtinians, diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Ordinis Tironenſis*, or *Turonenſis*; one convent of Carthuſians; twenty-three convents of Dominicans, or friars preachers; fourteen convents of Franciscan friars; ſeven convents of Carmelite friars; ſeven convents of Trinitarians for the redemption of captives; ten convents more of different orders not deſcribed in hiſtory; and twenty ſix houſes called colleges of ſecular prieſts or canons. To theſe may be added one houſe of knights templars, which was the hoſpital of St. Germains in Lothian, diſſolved in 1494.

Reformation. The progreſs of the reformation in England was attended with ſimilar efforts in Scotland. The Romiſh clergy by their ſcandalous lives and groſs impoſtures drew indignation and ruin on their own heads, and their extenſive poſſeſſions, by exciting the cupidity of the great and the powerful, deprived the church of its natural protectors. The ſovereigns of Scotland indeed exerted their influence in favour of the eſtabliſhment; but the ambition of England, the covetouſneſs of thoſe who hoped to enrich themſelves by the ſpoils of the church, the fury of the populace, and above all the badneſs of the cauſe, concurred to effect the overthrow of a degrading and ſuperſtitious form of worſhip.

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The reformation was, however, principally effected through the means of the celebrated John Knox, who returned in 1555 from Geneva, where he had been educated. He preached in private to the friends of the reformation, and expatiated with vehemence againſt the impiety of thoſe temporizing meaſures which the power of the clergy had hitherto induced men to adopt. He himſelf, however, was ſpeedily under the neceſſity of flying from the kingdom; but this did not prevent the progreſs of the new opinions. The dangerous weapons of wit and ridicule, for which the pageantry of the Romiſh church and the licentious lives of its clergy during that age, afforded ample ſcope, were employed with ſucceſs againſt it; ſo that the populace were inſpired with ſuch contempt for what they formerly accounted moſt ſacred, that they wantonly defaced the images of the Virgin Mary, the Trinity, and Saint Francis, in St. Giles's church. On this account, in 1556, Mary of Lorraine, queen dowager and regent of the kingdom, wrote from Aberdeen a violent letter, requiring the provoſt, bailies, and council of Edinburgh, to diſcover the authors of certain odious ballads and rhymes lately publiſhed, together with the deſtroyers of the ſacred images. Affairs, however, were now in ſuch a ſtate, that the current of oppoſition could not be reſiſted. In 1558, the clergy made great preparations as uſual for celebrating on the firſt of September the anniverſary of Saint Giles, the patron of Edinburgh. As they were not without apprehenſions that the new converts might diſturb the proceſſions, they intreated the queen-regent to honour the ſolemnity with her preſence, which they imagined might overawe the populace: this was agreed to. When the day came, and every thing was in readineſs for the proceſſion, the clergy, both ſecular and regular, repaired in great ſtate to the ſhrine, to bring forth the ſaint's ſtatue, when it was diſcovered that ſome of the reformers, during the preceding night, had ſtolen the image; and it was even ſaid that they had caſt it into the North Loch. This occaſioned conſiderable confuſion; but a ſmall image was borrowed from the grey friars, which the reformers among the mob called in deriſion *Young St. Giles*. The proceſſion being attended by the queen-regent and a multitude of prieſts and monks, with muſic, was conducted peaceably till towards the cloſe; when the queen having withdrawn, the mob diſmounted the image, and attacked the attendants. Then, according to John Knox, "Dagon was left without head or "hands; down goes the croſs; off go the ſurplices, round caps "and cornets, with the crowns; the grey friars gaped; the "black friars blew; the prieſts panted and fled; and happy "was he that got firſt to the houſe; for ſuch a ſudden fray

"came

" came never among the generation of antichriſt within this " realm before." Affairs were now approaching faſt to a criſis. The reforming preachers appear to have underſtood well the nature of the Roman Catholic religion, and the ſource of its influence over the human mind; they attacked therefore all thoſe ſenſible objects, and all that apparatus of magnificent temples, ſtatues, relics, muſic, robes, proceſſions, and ſplendid ceremonies, by which it impoſed upon the imaginations of men. The proſelytes of the religious reformers having increaſed in number, they aſſumed the name of the *congregation*, and entered into an agreement for their mutual ſupport in propagating their tenets, in demoliſhing the buildings, and interrupting the ſolemnities, by which the catholic prieſthood had hitherto ſupported their power. Their chiefs were ſtyled the *Lords of the Congregation*; and becoming confident in their own ſtrength, they advanced in arms towards Edinburgh, where the queen-regent found it neceſſary to come to an agreement with them; by which each party conſented, that the ſeparate religions ſhould be exerciſed unmoleſted till a day fixed on. At the ſame time the magiſtrates of Edinburgh prevailed with the lords of the congregation to ſpare their churches, to be employed in the proteſtant worſhip; and, in order to prevent the populace of the country from tumultuouſly entering the city, the gates were ſhut, excepting the Netherbow and the Weſtport, which were ſtrongly guarded.

In this manner was the conteſt conducted, the efforts of the people on the one hand being ſuch as for a leſs cauſe might have been termed ſeditious or even rebellious, and the reſiſtance to it involving appeals to foreign aid, the horrors of civil war, and the miſeries attendant on various factions under leaders ſwayed by their ſeveral paſſions and intereſts.

The inclination of the people, who were for the moſt part followers of Knox, was for that form of religion which is generally termed preſbyterian. After the abolition of the Romiſh church, a ſtrong though unpopular effort was made to continue the epiſcopacy on a plan approaching to that of the church of England. For this purpoſe Scotland continued to be divided into the archbiſhopricks of Saint Andrew's and Glaſgow; and the twelve biſhopricks of Aberdeen, Argyle, Brechin, Caithneſs, Dunblane, Dunkeld, Edinburgh, (which was erected into a ſee, ſo late as 1633, by King Charles I.) Galloway, the Iſles, Moray, Orkney, and Roſs. Although Glaſgow was erected into an archiepiſcopal ſee, St. Andrew's was always accounted the metropolitan ſee of Scotland. The ſees of Argyle, Galloway, and the Iſles, were ſuffragans to Glaſgow, all the others to St. Andrew's.

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The attempt to eſtabliſh the epiſcopal form of worſhip in Scotland by Charles I. cauſed the commencement of that open reſiſtance to his authority which terminated in his murder. His ſon Charles II. however revived it; but at the Revolution it was definitively aboliſhed, and the church (or kirk as it is called in the language of the country) was fixed on its preſent preſbyterian principle.

GOVERNMENT. The government of the church is by kirk ſeſſions, preſbyteries, provincial ſynods, and general aſſemblies. Theſe eccleſiaſtical judicatures are compoſed of ruling elders, deacons, and miniſters, who are all reputed as eccleſiaſtics in that church.

RULING ELDERS. The epiſcopal form of church polity is ſuppoſed to have been patronized ſo warmly by the Stuarts, from the notion that it tended to ſupport prerogative. The preſbyterian ſyſtem is ſaid to have captivated the majority of the people, not ſo much on account of its ſuperior claim to apoſtolical inſtitution, as becauſe the laity are mixed with the clergy in church judicatories, and the two orders, which under epiſcopacy are kept ſo diſtinct, incorporated, as it were, into one body. In the Scottiſh church, every regulation of public worſhip, every act of diſcipline, and every eccleſiaſtical cenſure, which in other churches flows from the authority of a dioceſan biſhop, or from a convocation of the clergy, is the joint-work of a certain number of clergymen and laymen acting together with equal authority, and deciding every queſtion by a plurality of voices. The laymen who thus form an eſſential part of the eccleſiaſtical courts of Scotland, are called *ruling elders*. Every pariſh has two or three of thoſe lay-elders, who are grave and ſerious perſons, choſen from among the heads of families, of known orthodoxy and ſteady adherence to the worſhip, diſcipline, and government of the church. Being ſolemnly engaged to uſe their utmoſt endeavours for the ſuppreſſion of vice and the cheriſhing of piety and virtue, and to exerciſe diſcipline faithfully and diligently, the miniſter, in the preſence of the congregation, ſets them apart to their office by ſolemn prayer; and concludes the ceremony, which is ſometimes called ordination, with exhorting both elders and people to their reſpective duties.

PROBATIONER. No man can lawfully preach in Scotland, unleſs he be licenſed by a preſbytery ſo to do; and ſuch licence they rarely give to a ſtudent in divinity, unleſs he has firſt been admitted to trials.

When a ſtudent in divinity brings a certificate from a profeſſor in an univerſity, of his having performed his exerciſes with approbation, and of his manners, he is immediately tried by

the preſbytery. Otherwiſe, if he has not ſtudied at an univerſity, they appoint a committee to try him before they try him themſelves.

The trials of probationers are private before a preſbytery, and public before a congregation, the preſbytery being preſent. The private trials are a homily or two, and an *exegeſis*, that is, a theological ſubject is given in to the preſbytery in theſes, and the probationer anſwers any objection which any miniſter in the preſbytery makes againſt thoſe theſes. They examine in the languages, and in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, and they put what extempore queſtions to him they pleaſe. The public trials are a popular ſermon, and an exerciſe and addition, that is, a text is handled half an hour logically and critically, and for half an hour more practically. If in all theſe he approves himſelf to the ſatisfaction of the preſbytery, he ſigns the confeſſion of faith, and owns the preſbyterian government to be the only government of the church within Scotland, and promiſes obedience to the judicatories of the Kirk; after which the preſbytery give him a licence to preach.

Though a probationer may immediately after his licence accept a call to be a miniſter of a pariſh, yet it is uſual to ſtay a year before he is ordained, and in the mean time he can only preach and pray; but has no public maintenance, nor can he adminiſter any ſacrament.

Deacons. A deacon muſt be a man of good character for manners and underſtanding, who having a competency in the world, is choſen by the kirk ſeſſion in every pariſh, approved by the congregation, and ſet apart by the miniſter ſolemnly before the congregation, after a ſermon and prayer for the occaſion, for his office, which is during life, unleſs he miſbehaves himſelf. His buſineſs is to collect the offerings for the poor at the church doors when there is a ſermon, which is the only public way in Scotland of providing for the poor; to enquire into the neceſſities of the pariſhioners; to viſit and take an account of the condition of poor ſick people; to acquaint the kirk ſeſſion with their caſe; and to diſtribute to them as the kirk ſeſſion ſhall appoint; to aſſiſt at the communion; to attend the miniſters and elders in the viſitation and examination of his particular diſtrict. In kirk ſeſſions he has no vote, only may give his advice, if aſked, except in matters relating to the poor; nor has he any ſtipend from the pariſh.

Ministers, or Preaching Presbyters. The office of theſe perſons includes the duties of deacons and ruling elders. They only can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons, and ruling elders,

aſſiſt

aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories. Beſide the miniſter's qualification of life and manners, of which ſevere ſcrutinies are made, he ought to be competently learned in the ſcriptures, the learned languages, and divinity. The preſbytery always tries him before he can be licenſed to preach, in order to obtain a call to be a miniſter of any pariſh; and uſually in Scotland, all their miniſters have had univerſity education, and have commenced maſters in arts.

None are ordained till they have obtained a call to a particular flock, which when obtained they cannot deſert without the authority of a preſbytery, or ſome ſuperior judicatory. Pluralities, curacies, and non-reſidences, are not practiſed in Scotland. To be guilty of the laſt, merits depoſition.

Formerly, when a pariſh wanted a miniſter, the heritors and elders, and in royal burghs the magiſtrates, and kirk ſeſſion, and heritors, choſe a probationer, *i. e.* one previouſly licenſed by a preſbytery to preach, or an ordained miniſter, to be their paſtor. Him they propoſed to the preſbytery, deſiring them to appoint one of their number to preach and preſide among them. When the call was to be ſigned in a public meeting, the perſon to be called was then named to the congregation, who approved or diſapproved, with giving reaſons, of which the preſbytery was the final judge. At preſent, however, every pariſh has a patron, who nominates or preſents a qualified miniſter.

The crown, the nobility, and gentry, by the ancient laws and conſtitutions of Scotland, had the right of preſenting miniſters to livings in their gift, to the biſhop of the dioceſe for inſtitution and induction; but upon the abolition of epiſcopacy, lay patronages were taken away by act of parliament, and in caſe of a vacancy in any church the right of preſentation was ſettled in the heritors of the ſaid pariſh (being proteſtants) and the ruling elders: but that method being found prejudicial to the rights of lay patrons in diſpoſing thereof, and for other reaſons aſſigned, the parliament of Great Britain in the 10th year of Queen Anne enacted, that from and after the firſt day of May 1712, it ſhall and may be lawful for her majeſty, her heirs and ſucceſſors, and for every other perſon or perſons who have a right to any patronage or patronages of any church or churches whatſoever (who have not made and ſubſcribed a formal renunciation thereof under their hands) to preſent a qualified miniſter or miniſters to any church or churches whereof they are patrons, which ſhall at any time after the ſaid firſt day of May happen to be vacant; and the preſbytery

of the reſpective bounds ſhall and is obliged to receive and admit the miniſter ſo preſented accordingly.

The miniſter takes an oath of allegiance, and makes an aſſurance equivalent to the oath of ſupremacy.

Upon the ordination day, a faſt is ſtrictly kept to implore God's bleſſing upon the work they are about: the moderator preaches upon the nature and dignity of the miniſterial office, then examines the perſon to be ordained, of his faith and aſſent to the doctrine and diſcipline of the kirk, of the motive of his coming into the miniſtry, and whether by any indirect means he has obtained that preſentation or call; of his reſolution to do his duty faithfully in that ſtation, and to obey the ſeveral judicatories of the church in the Lord. Upon his anſwering to the moderator's ſatisfaction, the pariſhioners are called upon to ratify their choice by lifting up their hands. When that is done, the moderator goes from the pulpit into the middle of the church, and there he and the other miniſters then preſent, lay their hands upon the head of the perſon that is to be ordained, and ſo ordain him miniſter of the Goſpel, and paſtor of that congregation. The ordination being over, the elders, heritors, and chief pariſhioners take their miniſter by the hand. If the nominee had been ordained before, he is only recommended to the people with a ſuitable ſermon and prayers by the moderator, and the people take him by the hand. The patron is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy, otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

Privileges. The privileges of the Scotch clergy ſince the reformation, are as conſiderable as in any other proteſtant kingdom or ſtate, in relation both to their perſons and eſtates; for the law has provided, that ſuch as ſhall be found guilty of aſſaulting the lives of miniſters, or robbing their houſes, or actually attempting the ſame, ſhall be puniſhed by death and eſcheat of moveables. And that this law may be the better executed, five hundred marks reward is allowed to the diſcoverer, and three hundred marks to the apprehender of the aforeſaid criminals, to be paid out of his majeſty's treaſury. And for their better accommodation, they are provided with convenient manſes (parſonage houſes); and where they are not fitting, the heritors of the pariſh ſhall build complete manſes for them, not exceeding 1000*l.* nor under 500 marks value.

Revenues. The law has provided that every pariſh church and ſuch bounds as ſhall be found to be a ſufficient and competent pariſh, ſhall have their own paſtor, with a ſufficient and reaſonable ſtipend, according to the ſtate and ability of the place; and be exempted from paying teynds (tenths). And as a farther

a farther addition to their maintenance, every miniſter has fuel, foggage, fail, and diviots allowed him (except miniſters in burghs that have no right to glebes) with graſs for one horſe and two cows to be deſigned; and if there be no kirk land near the manſe, or the ſame be arable, then the heritors pay the miniſter twenty pounds yearly for their graſs. And when the right of teynds was ſettled upon the lay patrons, care was taken by the government that the teynds ſhould be burdened with the miniſter's ſtipend, and with a proportionable augmentation for the future, as the rents of lands increaſed.

A miniſter that enters upon his charge before Whitſunday, has on that day a right to the whole year's ſtipend. If he enters between Whitſunday and Michaelmas, he has half and his predeceſſor if tranſlated or depoſed has the other half. But if his predeceſſor ſerves till after Michaelmas, he hath the whole of that year's ſtipend. The widow, children, and neareſt kin to the defunct have a right by act of parliament to an annate, that is half a year's ſtipend over and above what was due for his incumbency. So, (ex. gr.) if he dies between Whitſunday and Michaelmas, half is due for incumbency, and half for annate. If after Michaelmas, there is a whole year's ſtipend for incumbency, and half the next year's ſtipend for annate; the annate is equally divided between widow and children, and in default of both it goes to the neareſt kin. It is liable to pay no debts, and cannot be deviſed by the incumbent's will or aſſignation.

Kirk Sessions. In Scotland are 950 pariſhes, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches. Every pariſh is divided according to its extent into particular diſtricts, each of which has its own elders and deacons to overſee it. A conſiſtory of miniſters, elders, and deacons is called a kirk ſeſſion. This conſiſtory meets once a week at leaſt, to conſider the affairs of the pariſh as a religious ſociety. This is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its juriſdiction goes not beyond its own pariſh. The miniſter is always moderator, but without a negative; can call a kirk ſeſſion when he pleaſes, and, if at home is always bound to attend; if abſent, the elders and deacons may meet about the affairs of the poor without him, and can give alſo teſtimonials to any pariſhioner that would remove. The kirk ſeſſion can judge of matters of leſſer ſcandal; greater, ſuch as adultery, &c. are left to the preſbytery. They can ſuſpend from the Lord's ſupper for a time; their conſent in the call of a miniſter and precentor (pariſh clerk) is neceſſary; they provide all neceſſaries for the communion, and give notice of all catechiſings and parochial viſitations. They have a treaſurer who is choſen out of the deacons, to

keep and diſtribute the poor's money, which diſtribution they direct. They keep two regiſters, one of births and marriages, the other of their own proceedings, which they muſt lay before the preſbytery. Appeals lie from them in all caſes to their own preſbytery, whom they are to contradict in nothing.

PRESBYTERIES. The next judicatory is the *preſbytery*, which conſiſts of all the paſtors within a certain diſtrict, and one ruling elder from each pariſh, commiſſioned by his brethren to repreſent, in conjunction with the miniſter, the ſeſſion of that pariſh. They meet in the head town, from whence the preſbytery is denominated, as often as they pleaſe, and chooſe their moderator, who muſt be a miniſter, half yearly; he is only their prolocutor, and if he is abſent they chooſe another moderator *pro tempore*. When immediate buſineſs falls out within the time of the adjournment, the moderator can ſummon a preſbytery to meet in the intermediate time as they call it *pro re natâ*. The adjacent preſbyteries uſually ſend correſpondents to each other, who upon producing their commiſſions have a vote in the preſbyteries to which they are ſent. By theſe means they can aſk advice of each other in difficult caſes, and they can give an account of their own determinations in parallel ones. In ordinary meetings there is always a preſbyterial exerciſe upon a text of ſcripture appointed for that purpoſe, performed in the church by one or two miniſters, whoſe names and texts with the preſbytery's approbation are recorded, if their performance be approved. The members' names that meet are regiſtered, and the abſenters marked in order to be examined concerning the reaſon of their abſence. Preſbyteries have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds. They determine all appeals from kirk ſeſſions, but can try nothing at the firſt inſtance which is cognizable before a kirk ſeſſion. They compoſe all differences between miniſters and people, for which end they hold preſbyterial viſitations in every pariſh, where they examine the regiſter of the kirk ſeſſions, and proceed accordingly to cenſure or commend as they find cauſe. They inquire into repairs of churches, and ſee that glebes and manſes ſuffer no dilapidations: they appoint ſchools in all pariſhes, and ſee that the funds ſettled by act of parliament for that purpoſe be not miſemployed: and the ſchool-maſters are ſubject to their cenſures and examination. They only can inflict the greater excommunication, that is, abſolute prohibition of the communion of the Lord's ſupper. They licence probationers, interpoſe in all calls and ordinations of miniſters to different pariſhes, ſuſpend and depoſe them, and in ſhort determine eccleſiaſtical matters of all ſorts within their bounds, but ſo as not to contravene any act of parliament. There lies an appeal from

from the preſbyteries in all caſes to the provincial ſynods. Before they inflict privy cenſures they obſerve a faſt. In theſe privy cenſures every miniſter withdraws by turns, and the moderator inquires of the reſt concerning his conduct, and according to the report they are called in and commended, and encouraged or cenſured. All eccleſiaſtical judicatories begin, adjourn, and diſſolve themſelves by prayer.

PROVINCIAL SYNODS. Theſe ſynods are compoſed of ſeveral adjacent preſbyteries. The members are the ſame with thoſe of the ſubordinate preſbyteries, *viz.* the miniſter and a ruling elder out of every pariſh. This ſynod meets twice a year at the principal town of its bounds, and is opened with a ſermon, preached by the preceding moderator, whoſe name and text is regiſtered. They chooſe a *moderator* every ordinary ſeſſion, who is their prolocutor without a negative. They ſend to and receive correſpondents from the neighbouring ſynods, as the ſeveral preſbyteries did before among one another, upon whom in every thing they are a check, appeals lying to them from preſbyteries in all caſes whatſoever. If the plurality of the preſbytery deſire it, the moderator can call an intermediate ſeſſion, *pro re natâ*. Preſbyteries are ſubject to the privy cenſures of the ſynods, as miniſters are to the privy cenſures of preſbyteries. At every ordinary ſeſſion a diet is appointed, that is one certain time in which theſe privy cenſures are performed. All the acts of the ſynods are ſubject to the review of general aſſemblies; for which reaſon they keep exact regiſters of all their proceedings.

The 950 pariſhes of Scotland, with a few chapelries, compoſe ſixty-eight preſbyteries, which form thirteen provincial ſynods, according to the following table.

Preſbyteries.	Provincial Synods.	Preſbyteries.	Provincial Synods.
Edinburgh	In Lothian and Tweedale	Middlebee	In Dumfries
Linlithgow		Lochmaban	
Biggan		Pentpout	
Peeblis		Dumfries	
Dalkeith		Wigton	In Galloway
Haddington		Stranraver	
Dumbar		Kirkcudbright	
Dunſe	In Merſe and Teviotdale	Air	In Glaſgow and Air
Chiraſide		Irvin	
Kelſo		Paiſley	
Jedburgh		Hamilton	
Selkirk		Lanark	
Erſilton		Glaſgow	
		Dumbarton	

Preſbyteries.	Provincial Synods.
Denorn	In Argyle and the Iſles
Campleton	
Inverary	
Kilmoir	
Skye	
Dunkeld	In Perth and Sterling
Perth	
Dumblane	
Stirling	
Auchterarder	
Dunfermline	In Fife
Kirkalday	
St. Andrew's	
Cowpar	
Meigle	In Angus and Mearnis.
Dundee	
Forfar	
Breechin	
Aberbrothick	
Fordan	
Kinkardin	In Aberdeenſhire
Aberdeen	
Alford	
Garioch	
Deer	
Turreff	
Fodie	
Ellon .	
Strathbogie	In Murray
Elgin	
Forreſs	
Inverneſs	
Abernethy	
Aberloner	
Charony	In Roſs
Tain	
Dingwal	
Dornoch	
Caithneſs	In Orkney
Orkney	
Jetland	

General Assemblies. The general aſſembly is the *dernier reſort* of the church of Scotland; to which appeals lie from every provincial ſynod, and from which no appeal lies. It conſiſts of commiſſioners from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities A preſbytery conſiſting of leſs than twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder. If it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters, and two ruling elders; but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two, whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk ſeſſion of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. The commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are uſually of the firſt quality of the country.

This aſſembly meets once a year, and for the moſt part at Edinburgh. The ſovereign, or his commiſſioner, is always preſent, but gives no vote. Upon the day appointed, the preceding moderator makes a ſermon before the king's commiſſioner, and the members. Sermon ended, they go to the aſſembly houſe, where the commiſſioner being upon the throne, they

they proceed to chooſe a moderator. The election is managed thus: the laſt moderator nominates two or three miniſters, to whom the aſſembly add whom they pleaſe. The nominees are ſaid to be upon the liſt. Every man upon the liſt gives his vote and withdraws: then the aſſembly vote, and he that has the majority is choſen, and takes the chair at the foot of the throne. The moderator being choſen, the commiſſioner produces his commiſſion, empowering him to ſit there, with his majeſty's letter to the aſſembly; both which are read by the clerk, all the members ſtanding. The commiſſioner then makes a ſpeech, which is anſwered by the moderator; and then committees are appointed. This cloſes the firſt day. Next day is ſet apart for prayers; the commiſſioner certainly attends that day. The moderator nominates eight or nine ſucceſſively to pray; after which the aſſembly adjourns. Next day they proceed to buſineſs. The moderator has no negative; he only ſums up the debates, and puts the queſtion. The firſt buſineſs is always to anſwer the king's letter; which is done by a committee, whoſe draught is read and examined, and altered if need be, and then approved finally by the houſe. Then the moderator ſigns it in their preſence, and delivers it to the commiſſioner, who ſends it away to his majeſty. Though the buſineſs is uſually done by committees, yet any member may propoſe what he pleaſes in the aſſembly. When a motion is made, or any buſineſs is brought in by a committee, the moderator names two or three of the moſt eminent members to ſpeak to it; after whom any other member may ſpeak. When the debate is over, it is put to the vote, and carried, *agree* or *diſagree*, by the majority.

Matters of great weight, that bind the whole church, are firſt brought in by way of overtures, and then debated in the houſe; after which, if approved, they are tranſmitted to every preſbytery in Scotland, who return their anſwers by their commiſſioners to the next aſſembly, who, according as they find them approved by the preſbyteries, paſs them into acts of aſſembly, or reject them.

Once every aſſembly, a diet is appointed, to inſpect the acts of the provincial ſynods, as they had before inſpected the proceedings of the preſbyteries. Before they ariſe, they nominate a ſtanding commiſſion of miniſters and ruling elders, choſen out of every ſynod to attend the affairs of the church till the next aſſembly meets. Of theſe twenty-one is a *Quorum*, of whom fifteen muſt be miniſters. The moderator of the aſſemblies moderates in the commiſſion, if preſent. They were obliged to ſit the firſt week of every quarter, all parliament

liament time before the Union, and as often elſe as they thought fit. They have the power of an aſſembly in all matters referred to them from it; regularly they can act in nothing but what is recommended from the aſſembly; but then that recommendation often includes a general clauſe, empowering them to act in every thing that may be for the good of the church. They are accountable to the next general aſſembly, and therefore keep a regiſter of their proceedings.

When the aſſembly are to riſe, the moderator tells them that it is time to diſſolve themſelves, and appoint another aſſembly in the name of their maſter, the Lord Jeſus Chriſt: then he ſpeaks to the commiſſioner in the name of the aſſembly, who returns an anſwer, and then diſſolves them in the king's name, and fixes time and place of the new aſſembly, which is always to be within a year and a day after the diſſolution of the old one. The moderator then prays, and the aſſembly ſings a pſalm; after which the moderator bleſſes them, and they ariſe.

Parochial Examinations and Catechising. Before every communion the miniſter viſits and examines every family in his pariſh, once at leaſt; of this, the Lord's day preceding, notice is given, that every diſtrict may know when he intends to viſit them. He is accompanied with the ruling elder and deacon of the particular diſtrict, and carries a regiſter book with him, in which the names of all the examinable perſons are entered. When he comes into any family, he aſks what addition or diminution there is ſince he was there laſt: if any addition, he deſires the new comer to produce his teſtimonial of life and manners from the laſt place of his abode, without which, by ſeveral aſſembly acts, no man can be admitted as a member of any congregation. Upon producing ſuch a certificate, his name is regiſtered; upon failing, he is commanded to procure one, elſe he can be no member of that kirk. To live ſix weeks in a pariſh makes a man a pariſhioner, after which, if he leaves, he muſt get a certificate of his good behaviour, ſigned by the miniſter or kirk ſeſſion clerk, in the name and with the conſent of the kirk ſeſſion. If the new comer only removes from another family in the pariſh, his name is transferred in the regiſter (or, as they call it, the examination-book,) to its proper place. Then he marks the children, and enters them in his examination-book if they are of a fit age. He then exhorts every one to a ſtrict obſervance of their reſpective duties, and particularly to family prayer, reading the Scriptures, and ſinging of pſalms. To omit family prayer is eſteemed very ſcandalous; and the omiſſion of it is often puniſhed with excom-

excommunication. At parting, the miniſter uſually prays with every family.

Viſitation being over, the miniſter gives notice when he will examine the perſons marked in his book. Each diſtrict comes to church ſeparately at the time appointed, and the miniſter, accompanied with the elder and deacon of that diſtrict, examines them in order as they ſtand in the examination-book. He examines them out of the ſhorter catechiſm, and if the perſon anſwers, he catechiſes upon theſe queſtions, and inſtructs them upon what is difficult. He marks alſo at every one's name how they anſwer. Adults who have been often examined are not catechiſed when they are found to be ſufficiently knowing, this exerciſe being chiefly intended for children and ignorant perſons.

Preaching and Public Worship. Every Lord's day there is public worſhip twice in every pariſh church in Scotland; the method of which is this:—In the morning about ten o'clock the congregation meets, and when the miniſter is come, a pſalm is ſung which is read and tuned by the precentor; after which the miniſter prays, and then reads a chapter or two out of the Bible, which he expounds for about half an hour; this is called lecturing; when another pſalm is ſung, and then another prayer; after which ſermon begins; which ended, there is another prayer, and another pſalm; and then all is concluded with the miniſter's bleſſing. Service is uſually done by a quarter after twelve.

In the afternoon they meet about two: the order is the ſame as in the morning, only there is no lecturing. The afternoon ſermon ought to be about ſome queſtion in the ſhorter catechiſm.

In moſt of the royal burghs and towns there is once a week a week-day ſermon beſides; in villages only once a fortnight, and in ſome places only in ſummer-time. They uſe no inſtrumental muſic, nor have they any forms of prayer; but in the directory the Lord's prayer is recommended to be uſed, and general rules are there ſet down for prayer, preaching, ſinging, and adminiſtration of the ſacraments.

Baptism. This ſacrament is adminiſtered by none but the miniſter, who does it by ſprinkling only, not immerſion; whether it be adminiſtered at church or at home, there is always a ſermon before it. The father, if he lies under no public ſcandal, and in his abſence ſome reputable neighbours preſent the infant to the miniſter, who aſks the parent if he deſires that the child ſhall be received into the viſible church, and receive the ſigns and ſeals of the covenant and grace by baptiſm? Upon his anſwering, Yea, the miniſter diſcourſes concerning the nature

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of baptiſm, commands the parent and the congregation to ſtick to their baptiſmal vows, bids the parent educate his child in the fear, nurture, and admonition of the Lord, and adhere to the proteſtant religion, as contained in the Scriptures, the Confeſſion of Faith, and the ſhorter and larger Catechiſm. This being promiſed by the parent or preſenter, the miniſter craves a bleſſing upon the ordinance, and ſprinkles a little water on the child's face, *in the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghoſt.*

Lord's Supper. Some time before the Lord's Supper is adminiſtered, the congregation is to have notice of it from the pulpit. The week before, the kirk ſeſſion meets and draws up a liſt of all the communicants in the pariſh, according to the miniſter's examination-book and the teſtimony of the elders and deacons. According to this liſt tickets are given out to the elders to give to the communicants if required. The miniſters and elders give tickets alſo to ſtrangers, who bring ſufficient teſtimonials; and none are ever allowed to communicate without ſuch tickets, which are produced at the table. Thoſe that never received, are inſtructed by the miniſter, ſeverally and by themſelves, in the nature of the ſacraments, and taught what is the proper preparation thereunto.

The communion is always celebrated upon the Lord's day; the Wedneſday or Thurſday before there is a ſolemn faſt; and on the Saturday there are two preparatory ſermons. On Sunday morning, after ſinging and prayer as uſual, the miniſter of the pariſh preaches a ſuitable ſermon; and when the ordinary worſhip is ended, he, in the name of Jeſus Chriſt, forbids the unworthy to approach, and invites the penitent to come and receive. Then he goes into the body of the church, where one or two tables, according to its width, are placed, reaching from one end to the other, covered with a white linen cloth, and ſeats on both ſides for the communicants. The miniſter places himſelf at the middle or end of the table, on which the elements are placed. After a ſhort diſcourſe he reads the inſtitution, and bleſſes the elements. Then he breaks the bread, and diſtributes it and the wine to thoſe that are next him, who tranſmit them to their neighbours; the elders and deacons attending to ſerve, and to ſee that things are done decently and in order. Whilſt theſe receive, the miniſters diſcourſe concerning the nature of this ſacrament. When the firſt company has received, they withdraw, and others take their places; and whilſt the companies are ſhifting, a pſalm is ſung, and ſo they continue till all have communicated. The miniſter then returns to the pulpit, and diſcourſes concerning the particular caſes of communicants; and with thankſgiving

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and ſinging of pſalms the morning ſervice is concluded. Then the congregation are diſmiſſed for an hour, and ſo meet again, when they have the uſual afternoon worſhip; and on Monday about nine o'clock in the morning, there is public worſhip and two ſermons, which cloſe the whole.

On theſe occaſions the pariſh miniſter is aſſiſted by two or three of his neighbours, and ſeldom preaches oftener than the morning of the ſacrament day. Private communions are not allowed.

Holy-Days. No holy-days are kept except the Lord's day, which is obſerved with great exactneſs. There are faſts and thankſgivings, in the appointing of which, although power is attributed to the church, yet the ſanction of the privy council is added, that they may be the more religiouſly kept.

Marriages. Marriage is ſolemnized by the miniſter. None can marry that are nearer than couſin germans; and prohibited degrees in blood hold alſo in affinity. Banns are always aſked three ſeveral Lord's days in churches where both parties live, before marriage can be contracted; and the miniſter that marries any perſons ought to have ſufficient proof that banns have been already proclaimed.

The form of matrimony is not unlike that uſed in the church of England. The miniſter firſt prays, then diſcourſes upon the inſtitution, uſe, and ends of marriage, and the duty either party owes to the other; after that he aſks the congregation if they have aught to object, and charges the perſons to be married, to declare before the great God, if they know of any legal impediment why they ſhould not be lawfully married. If no impediment be acknowledged, the miniſter commands them to join hands, the man ſaying, *I* A. *do take thee* B. *to be my married wife: and I do, in the preſence of God, and before theſe his people, promiſe to be a loving and faithful huſband unto thee, until God ſhall ſeparate us by death.* And the woman ſaying, *I* B. *do take thee* A. *to be my married huſband; and I do, in the preſence of God, and before theſe his people, promiſe to be a loving, faithful, and obedient wife unto thee, until God ſhall ſeparate us by death.* Then the miniſter pronounces them to be man and wife, and concludes all with a prayer.

Burials. The church of Scotland uſes neither funeral ſermons, or any public prayers at the burial of the dead.

Method of Diſcipline. The diſcipline of the church is regulated by two aſſembly acts; one dated April 4. 1705; in which it is enacted, that in caſes of groſs ſcandal, where the perſons guilty appear oftener than once before the congregation, the kirk ſeſſion ſhall declare to them, that they are unworthy of the communion, or command them, penitent or not, to

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appear in public, to be rebuked for their ſin, according to Saint Paul's command, 1 Tim. v. 20. After ſuch rebuke, the miniſters and elders ſhall inſtruct them in the heinouſneſs of their ſins; and when they are ſatisfied that theſe offenders are truly penitent, ſhall admit them to public profeſſion of their repentance, in order to abſolution. If they continue impenitent, the kirk ſeſſion ſhall conſult its own preſbytery, who, if they ſee cauſe, ſhall command the *ſentence of leſſer excommunication* to be denounced againſt them before the congregation, which ſhall continue till the ſeſſions are ſatisfied of their amendment. And this ſentence is to be intimated the Lord's day next before the adminiſtration of the ſacrament. The other aſſembly-act bears date April 18. 1717. In that the whole form of proceſs, with relation to ſcandals, cenſures, and abſolutions, is ſet down with minuteneſs and preciſion.

PROTESTANT DISSENTERS. Diſſenters of every denomination are found in Scotland, but the moſt numerous are thoſe who were formerly members of the eſtabliſhment, and are called *epiſcopalians*. The laity of this perſuaſion enjoy the ſame civil privileges with the eſtabliſhed church. They are under no reſtrictions, are obliged to no teſts; but are employed in all places of truſt, either civil or military, only taking the oaths to the government.

THE LAW.

WHEN the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland was projected in the reign of James the Firſt, the favourers of the plan judged it the more eaſy to be done, as both kingdoms were anciently under the ſame government, and ſtill retained a great reſemblance, though far from an identity in their laws. By an act of parliament, 1 Jac. I. c. 1., it was declared, that theſe two mighty, famous, and ancient kingdoms were formerly one; and Sir Edward Coke obſerved, how marvellous a conformity there was, not only in the religion and language of the two nations, but alſo in their ancient laws, the deſcent of the crown, their parliaments, their titles of nobility, their officers of ſtate and of juſtice, their writs, their cuſtoms, and even the language of their laws; upon which account he ſuppoſed the common law of each to have been originally the ſame; eſpecially as the ancient and authentic book called *Regiam Majeſtatem*, which contains the rules of the old common law of Scotland, is extremely ſimilar

to that of Glanvil, which contains the principles of *ours*, as it ſtood in the reign of Henry II.* And the many diverſities ſubſiſting between the two laws at preſent, might be well enough accounted for, from a diverſity of practice in two large and uncommunicating juriſdictions, and from the acts of two diſtinct and independent parliaments, which, in many points, altered and abrogated the old common law of both kingdoms.

The difficulties which at firſt oppoſed the union being ſurmounted, it became one of the articles, that the laws relating to trade, cuſtoms, and the exciſe, ſhould be the ſame in Scotland as in England, but all the other laws of Scotland ſhould remain in force; though alterable by the parliament of Great Britain. Yet with this caution: that laws relating to public policy are alterable at the diſcretion of parliament: laws relating to private right are not to be altered but for the evident benefit of the people of Scotland. Conſequently the municipal laws of Scotland are ordained to be ſtill obſerved in that part of the iſland, unleſs altered by parliament; and, as the parliament has not yet thought proper, except in a few inſtances, to alter them, they ſtill (with regard to the particulars unaltered) continue in full force; the municipal or common laws of England are, generally ſpeaking, of no force or validity in Scotland.

Civil Law. The civil law, ſtrictly ſo called, is the rule of all proceedings in Scotland, where the ſtatute-law is defective: upon the civil law the ſolemn judgments in law caſes have been collected, which are called *Pratiques*, a word of the ſame import with that of *Reports* in England. There is a greater harmony betwixt the laws of England and Scotland than one would imagine: for the acts of Sederunt are the ſame with the rules of court in England. The Scottiſh letters of advocation are all one with the prohibitions in England: both nations agree in their practice in the ſecret examination of married women in paſſing of fines; and the *Jus Relictae*, that is, the *Scottiſh terces*, and the *Engliſh thirds* are the ſame. The *Scottiſh wadſets* and *reverſions*, anſwer to the Engliſh *mortgages* and *defeazances*; their *poinding of goods* after *letters of horning*, differs not from the *Engliſh executions* upon an *outlawry*: nor does the king's remiſſion in Scotland free

* The work called Regiam Majeſtatem, derives its appellation from the words with which it commences. It has been a ſubject of ſome controverſy whether this work or that of Glanville were the original; but it ſeems clearly decided that the Engliſh work was the more ancient, and was copied, and in ſome places explained, in the other. See the preface to Mr. Beames's tranſlation of Glanville, p. xxiv.

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from *aſſything*, any more than his pardon in England foreclоſes an appeal.

MUNICIPAL LAW. The municipal law conſiſts either of acts of parliament, or of the cuſtom and practices of the college of juſtice, which in caſes not otherwiſe adjudged, have the force of acts of parliament; and when neither of theſe contradicts, the civil law is of force, which in truth is the common law of Scotland.

FOREST LAWS. Foreſt laws were deſigned for the good government of the king's foreſts, parks, woods, and chaſes; to prevent paſturing in foreſts by ſuch as have no right to it, or without licence from the comptrollers or keepers, who, if they ſuffer it, are to forfeit that office, and the offender's chattels are to be eſcheated to the king; alſo to puniſh fellers of the king's wood, ſlayers of deer or wild fowl therein, with dog, hawk, bow, gun, or other engine, or thoſe that ſhoot with any gun therein, or in the night, within a mile thereof, or ſlay any deer ſtraying in time of ſtorm, under the penalty of having all their goods eſcheated; to prevent hunting or hawking within ſix miles of the king's woods, parks, chaſes, and palaces, under the penalty of 100*l.*, half to the king, and half to the informer; which penalties the keepers of foreſts, and others having right thereto, by their infeofments, have power to inflict upon tranſgreſſors after trial and conviction by an inqueſt.

REGISTERS. The law of Scotland is eaſy and regular, by reaſon of public regiſters, of which there are two ſorts, for recording conveyances of the lands and poſſeſſions of private ſubjects; whereof one is general, and fixed at Edinburgh, for the uſe of the whole kingdom, the other is more particular in the ſeveral ſhires, ſtuartries, and regalities; they were firſt eſtabliſhed by act of parliament in the reign of James II. ſince which time they are the beſt repoſitories of records relating to civil rights of the ſubjects; which are ſo full, that titles are much more eaſily underſtood, than can be done without them; for by this means men are not cheated in purchaſing and conveying eſtates; which may appear by the following inſtances.

No man can have a right to any eſtate, but by his being ſeiſed of it, and that muſt be regiſtered within ſixty days, otherwiſe it is of no effect; by which means all ſecret conveyances are cut off; for if no ſeiſin be paſſed upon them, or if they be not entered in the regiſter, which every one is at liberty to ſearch, the conveyance is of no force.

Secondly, All bonds have a clauſe in them for inſerting them in the public regiſters; and they being regiſtered, without any further

further action, by a charge of ſix days the debtor muſt make payment, otherwiſe writs, called letters of *horning*, *caption*, and *poinding*, are given out; by the firſt of which the party is under outlawry and rebellion, and forfeits to the king his perſonal eſtate; and if he continue a year under it, the life-rent of his real eſtate, in which the creditor is preferred for his intereſt, and the reſt goes into the exchequer. By the letters of *caption* the debtor is ſeized and put into priſon, nor is his houſe a place of ſecurity, but may be ſearched for him. By the letters of *poinding*, the debtor's goods may be diſtrained wherever they can be found.

A third inſtance is, that any creditor may ſerve a writ on his debtors, called letters of *inhibition*, which hinders him from making any diſpoſition of his goods or eſtate, till the creditor is ſatisfied, and all is null and to no effect that he does afterwards, if theſe letters be returned regiſtered within twenty-one days after they are ſerved, otherwiſe they are of no force. In ſhort, all reverſions, regreſſes, bonds, and writs for making the ſame, aſſignations thereto, diſcharges thereof, renunciation of wadſets, grants of redemption, and all inſtruments of ſeiſin, are to be regiſtered in the general regiſtry, to be appointed by the clerk-regiſter at Edinburgh, or in particular regiſters for that purpoſe, within threeſcore days after date of them; and extracts out of the ſaid regiſter make faith in all caſes, except in the caſe of improbation: and if any of the ſaid writs ſhall not be regiſtrate, they are null in prejudice of a third party; but not againſt the maker thereof and his heirs. This regiſtration is annexed to the clerk-regiſter's office, and is to be made by him or his deputies within forty-eight hours after the receipts of the writs, under pain of deprivation of the clerk of his place and office of notary; who are alſo to deliver back the writs, marked with the day, month, year, and leaf of the regiſtration, for which he is to receive twenty-ſix ſhillings and eight-pence for his fee, and then they are delivered to the clerk-regiſter, to be patent, and extracts thereof given to the proprietors; which law now extends to all lands in burghs and their liberties, and the town clerks are to keep a ſeveral book for their regiſtrations, depending only on the magiſtrates, and not the clerk-regiſter. All letters of horning, inhibitions, interdictions, ſeiſins, and reverſions, are to be regiſtered; the firſt within fifteen days, the ſecond and third within forty days, and the laſt two within ſixty days, or elſe they are null and of no effect. All charters, and other writs paſſing the great ſeal and privy ſeal, muſt be regiſtered by the writs thereto, in the regiſters thereof, and no keeper muſt append the ſeal to any

writ, before he receives a certificate that the inſtruments are regiſtered.

Courts. There exiſts in Edinburgh, as in former times, a complete eſtabliſhment for the adminiſtration of juſtice. The principal courts of law are three in number: a civil, a criminal, and a revenue or exchequer court.

Court of Session. The ſupreme civil court is ſtyled the Court of Seſſion. This court was eſtabliſhed in its preſent form in 1532. It was appointed to conſiſt of fifteen ordinary judges, ſeven churchmen, ſeven laymen, and a preſident, whom it behoved to be a churchmen. Beſide theſe, the lord chancellor had a right to preſide and vote in that court; and the king might alſo appoint three or four peers of the realm *extraordinary lords*, as they were called, with a power to take their ſeats on the bench, and vote when they thought proper; a privilege which he never failed to exerciſe. This part of its conſtitution was a great nuiſance. Men, ignorant of the laws in general, and unacquainted with the particular caſes in which they interfered, who had no ſalary, and who on theſe accounts could not be expected to attend the court but when inſtigated by perſonal intereſts or political views, were not aſhamed to take their places amidſt experienced judges, and to thwart the ordinary courſe of juſtice. This pernicious privilege has been abrogated ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover. The judges of this court are now appointed by the crown from among the body of advocates or barriſters of at leaſt five, or writers to the ſignet of ten years' ſtanding; but, in practice, inſtances of the latter being raiſed to the bench are extremely rare. The court at preſent conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen other judges. Each of the fourteen ſits for a week alternately in the *outer houſe*. The judge ſo ſitting is called the *lord ordinary*; and except certain cauſes ſuppoſed to be of peculiar intereſt and importance, or to which the law allows unuſual diſpatch, which can at once be brought before the whole lords, he diſcuſſes all the new cauſes that are put into the roll during the week that he ſits in judgment. Theſe cauſes are ſeldom determined upon a ſingle hearing; and the judge has a power of altering his own ſentence as often as he inclines. Each of the lords comes once or oftener in the week to the outer houſe, to hear pleadings, or give judgment upon thoſe cauſes which came firſt before him when he ſat as lord ordinary; and upon which many written caſes, or *repreſentations* as they are called, may have already been laid before him. If the parties do not acquieſce in the lord ordinary's judgment, which in matters of importance is often the caſe, application is made for altering the ſentence by a printed petition,

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which is preſented to the whole lords. Beſides petitions, various printed papers are produced, under the titles of ſtates, caſes, proofs, informations, anſwers, replies, and duplies; yet, notwithſtanding theſe voluminous papers, the lords will hear pleadings in the ſame cauſe, and theſe ſo diffuſe as to occupy the court during a whole week, ſometimes three weeks.

The Court of Seſſion, or Lords of Council and Seſſion, poſſeſs a ſupreme civil juriſdiction, liable, however, ſince the Union, to the review of the Houſe of Lords, although before the union, no appeal lay from the Court of Seſſion to the parliament. They do not judge maritime nor conſiſtorial cauſes, nor thoſe which are proper to a court of freeholders, or the lord lyon in the firſt inſtance; but the decrees of theſe different courts are ſubject to their review. They poſſeſs a criminal juriſdiction, not only in matters which may ariſe incidentally in civil cauſes, ſuch as perjury and forgery, but alſo in the crimes of uſury, deforcement, or reſiſtance to the officers of the law, wrongous impriſonment, fraudulent bankruptcy, and others; and although they cannot indeed puniſh capitally, yet whipping, impriſonment, pillory, and perpetual baniſhment, are claſſed among the puniſhments which they once inflicted.

Their power is chiefly important becauſe they act both as judges and jury; and at once as a court of law and of equity, not bound by ſtrict forms when they appear inconſiſtent with juſtice. In virtue alſo of a ſtatute, empowering the Court of Seſſion to make rules for regulating the procedure which occurs before them, and for the ſpeedy execution of juſtice, they exert a kind of legiſlative authority. By edicts called *acts of ſederunt*, they not only regulate the forms of procedure before the court, but, like the Roman prætors, declare the principles upon which, in certain caſes, they intend to adminiſter juſtice. Thus, by one of theſe acts of ſederunt, they ſuperſeded an expreſs act of parliament which regulated the mode of removing farmers from their poſſeſſions, and eſtabliſhed a new mode. By other acts of ſederunt, they ordained that all bankrupts ſhould continually wear an upper coat, of which the one-half ſhould be of yellow cloth, and the other of brown, and upon their heads a party coloured cap of the ſame ſort. They underſtand themſelves to be in ſome meaſure ſucceſſors of the Scots privy council, and as intitled to provide a remedy for every evil or irregularity that may occur in ſociety, againſt which no other proviſion is made. Accordingly they have frequently fixed the prices of proviſions, and have given authority to magiſtrates to compel all

inn-keepers and dealers in poultry to declare upon oath at what prices they had ſold poultry, dreſſed or undreſſed; ſo that it might be diſcovered whether the ſtandard price had been conformed to. Upon the death of commiſſaries in the eccleſiaſtical courts, and of ſheriff-deputes, they have been in uſe to grant commiſſions to perſons to exerciſe theſe offices till they were of new filled up by the crown.

JUDGES. The judges in this court and their ſalaries are, the *Lord Preſident*, 3000*l.*, the *Lord Juſtice Clerk*, 1500*l.*, and the Lords of Seſſion, 1200*l.* each.

OFFICERS. There are in this court various officers from the principal clerks downward, but their ſeveral employments do not demand enumeration.

ADVOCATES. The advocates in this court are gentlemen of liberal education, who undergo examinations upon the Scottiſh and Roman laws; they alſo pay upon their admiſſion a ſum of money which has been increaſed at different periods, and at preſent, including perquiſites to inferior officers, amounts to nearly 170*l.*

THE KING'S OR LORD ADVOCATE. This great officer is mentioned in this place, although he is not peculiarly connected with the Court of Seſſion, but as the head of the profeſſion of advocates. His office is ſimilar to that of the attorney-general in England; his buſineſs is to purſue and defend in all cauſes wherein the king has an intereſt, and he is ſtyled *My Lord*. His power and privileges are very great. He is allowed to ſit within the bar of the Court of Seſſion covered, where only the peers of the realm are allowed to ſit. He can iſſue warrants for ſearching, apprehending, and impriſoning, in any part of Scotland; and his warrants are as valid as any judge's; and as it was decided in the parliament of Paris in 1685, that the king's advocate might at the ſame time be a judge; ſo in like manner was it allowed in Scotland; as both Sir William Oliphant and Sir John Neſbit were lord advocates and lords of ſeſſion at the ſame time. His ſalary is 1500*l.* a year.

WRITERS, SOLICITORS, AND AGENTS. The perſons who conduct buſineſs in the ſame way that attornies and ſolicitors do in England are of orders. The firſt claſs are ſtyled *writers, or clerks, to his majeſty's ſignet*. They poſſeſs the excluſive privilege of writing ſummonſes and other writs which paſs in the king's name. They ſerve an apprenticeſhip of five years, paying a clerk's fee of 100*l.*, and ſums to the ſociety of writers to the ſignet amounting to an additional 110*l.*, and they undergo an examination at their admiſſion. There is likewiſe an incorporated ſociety of *ſolicitors* before the ſupreme courts, who

who ſerve an apprenticeſhip of three years, and pay a moderate ſum at their admiſſion. In addition to theſe, every advocate is entitled to nominate a *firſt clerk*, who poſſeſſes the privilege of acting as an agent before the court.

Court of Justiciary. The ſupreme criminal court of Scotland is called the *Court* of *Juſticiary*. It has a power of reviewing the deciſions of all inferior courts; but it is underſtood that no appeal lies againſt its decrees to the Houſe of Lords. Anciently the *Juſtice Ayre*, or Court of Juſticiary, was the ſupreme court, civil as well as criminal; and cauſes of both kinds were tried in it by juries. It retained its civil juriſdiction ſometime after the inſtitution of the Court of Seſſion; but it is now aboliſhed. The judges in it formerly were, the lord juſtice general, juſtice clerk, and certain aſſeſſors added to them by the privy council, who were choſen from among perſons not verſed in the laws, and whoſe commiſſions only laſted during the particular trials upon which they were appointed to preſide. A conſtitution ſo highly improper was altered by Charles II., and the court modelled into its preſent form. It now conſiſts of the lord juſtice general, who is always a peer of the moſt diſtinguiſhed rank or influence, the lord juſtice clerk, and four commiſſioners of juſticiary, who are alſo lords of ſeſſion. The office of lord juſtice general bears a ſimilar relation in the Court of Juſticiary to that of one of the extraordinary lords formerly in the Court of Seſſion, and like thoſe too ought to be aboliſhed, were it not on account of the trial by jury uſed in this court which renders the office harmleſs.

The judges of this court go on circuit to the principal diſtricts of the country, where they hold courts twice a year. Upon theſe circuits they poſſeſs a civil juriſdiction by way of appeal in cauſes below 12*l.* ſterling, and in theſe they proceed without a jury.

In criminal trials before this court the peremptory challenge is not allowed to the accuſed party; but in every other reſpect the form of procedure is more favourable to him than in England. He muſt be ſerved a fortnight before his trial with a full copy of the indictment, with a liſt of the witneſſes againſt him, and of the names of forty-five men, out of whom the jury of fifteen are to be appointed. He is alſo, in every caſe, contrary to the Engliſh law, allowed the aſſiſtance of counſel, who, beſides examining and croſs-examining the witneſſes, have the privilege of addreſſing the jury after the counſel for the crown has ended.

The ſalary of the *Lord Juſtice General* is 2000*l.*; of the *Lord Juſtice Clerk* 1200*l.*; and of each of the *Lords Commiſ-*

ſioners 780*l.*; the *Solicitor General* has 600*l.* a year, and there are ſome other officers.

COURT OF EXCHEQUER. In the court of exchequer, revenue cauſes alone are tried. It was eſtabliſhed in its preſent form in conſequence of the treaty of Union, and trials proceed in the Engliſh manner. The judges of this court are, the high treaſurer of Great Britain, with a chief baron and other four barons, who muſt be either ſerjeants at law or Engliſh barriſters, or Scottiſh advocates of five years' ſtanding. All may plead before this court who can practiſe in the courts of Weſtminſter Hall or in the Court of Seſſion. The ſalary of the chief baron is 3000*l.*; that of the ſenior puiſne baron 2075*l.*; and of the other barons 1200*l.* The king's remembrancer has 1000*l.* a year, and the principal auditor 1200*l.*; there are various other officers.

ADMIRALTY COURT. Although Scotland never poſſeſſed a powerful navy, yet the court of admiralty is as ancient as in moſt other kingdoms and ſtates in Europe; and the office of lord high admiral has been uſually entruſted to perſons of the greateſt quality. By act 16. Parl. 3. Charles II. the admiralty is declared to be a ſupreme court in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh water, and navigable rivers below the firſt bridge, or within flood mark: ſo that nothing competent to his juriſdiction can be meddled with, *in prima inſtantia*, but by the lord high admiral and the judge and judges of his court; and no advocation or appeal lies from it to the lords of ſeſſion, or any other court of judicature, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Sentence paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before this court. No ſuſpenſion or other ſtop to his decrees can be paſſed, except by the lords aſſembled together in ſeſſion-time, and by three lords met together for that purpoſe in vacation-time; and, if they find that the ſuſpenſion was unjuſtly procured, they may give damages to the perſons aggrieved, over and above the expences of their plea, before the lords. This court alſo may review its own acts, wherein it is controulable by no other court; and in this power it is confirmed by the 19th article of the act of Union; ſubject to ſuch regulations and alterations as the parliament of Great Britain ſhall think fit. All maritime cauſes, crimes, treſpaſſes, actions, &c. are triable before the judge of this court, (for the lord high admiral never judges in perſon,) by the civil law and cuſtoms of Scotland; in which the court is aſſiſted in deciding ſome particular caſes by the laws of *Oleron*, *Wiſby*, and other maritime con-

conſtitutions. There are alſo other peculiar juriſdictions of admiralty, hereditary in ſome families. Thus the Duke of Argyle is hereditary admiral of the *Weſtern Iſles*; the Earl of Sutherland of the ſhire of *Sutherland*; the Earl of Morton of *Orkney* and *Zetland*. Again, many noblemen are conſtituted deputy admirals on ſeveral coaſts by the lord high admiral, changeable at his pleaſure. The magiſtrates of great towns, on the coaſt, are appointed admirals' deputies within their own precincts; and ſuch of his majeſty's ſhips, which at any time are ſtationed in the Firth, for guarding and ſecuring the coaſts, receive their orders from the Lord Provoſt of Edinburgh. The principal officers are a lord high admiral with a ſalary of 1000*l.* and a judge with 400*l.*

College of Justice. The members of all the courts, with the practioners before them, conſtitute an incorporation called the *College of Juſtice*, which was inſtituted by James the Fifth. The judges of the court of ſeſſion are ſtyled *ſenators* of this college or incorporation. It includes advocates, writers to the ſignet, agents, the firſt clerk of advocates, the clerks of the courts, and the attorneys in the exchequer. The whole members of this incorporation, forming the moſt wealthy and not the leaſt numerous claſs of perſons in Edinburgh, poſſeſs the privilege of paying no taxes to the city of Edinburgh for the ſupport of the clergy, the city guard, lighting the ſtreets, or any other purpoſe.

Faculty of Advocates. Upon the inſtitution of the college of juſtice, otherwiſe the ſeſſion, ten perſons of the beſt reputation, knowledge, and experience, were appointed to plead in all actions before that court; and when any more were neceſſary the numbers were ſupplied by advice of the ſenators or lords; but buſineſs increaſing, their number increaſed alſo. So that now it is reckoned, there are about three hundred, many of whom are gentlemen of good families and eſtates. The body meet on the firſt Tueſday of January annually, and chuſe a dean, treaſurer, clerks, examiner, and librarians. And they enjoy many great and valuable privileges, with the reſt of the college of juſtice.

Advocates' Library. As a literary eſtabliſhment, the Advocates' Library is highly worthy of notice. Sir George Mackenzie had the merit of projecting this inſtitution, which was founded in 1682. In 1695 the collection was conſiderably encreaſed by a donation from William Duke of Queenſberry; and it was long uſual for men of rank to make preſents to it of rare and curious books and other objects. As every advocate at his admiſſion pays a ſum of money to the faculty, a part of this money is appropriated to the preſervation and increaſe of

the library. The ſtatutes alſo, which eſtabliſh the literary property of authors in their books, require that a copy of each book ſhall be given gratuitouſly to this library. The collection of books is, upon the whole, ſelect, and amounts to nearly 60,000 volumes, in all ſciences, and in ſeveral languages. Very eminent men have been keepers of this library, particularly Thomas Ruddiman, Walter Goodall, and David Hume. Beſides printed books, the Faculty are in poſſeſſion of a valuable collection of manuſcripts, conſiſting of the Regiſters of many of the Scottiſh monaſteries, of illuminated miſſals, and of many volumes of original papers relating to the affairs of Scotland, as well as copies of others which have been preſerved by Sir Robert Cotton, or are extant in the public offices in England. The Faculty are alſo in poſſeſſion of a collection of prints. Among other curioſities, the Faculty poſſeſs an entire mummy preſerved in the original cheſt. This was purchaſed by the late Earl of Morton, lord regiſter of Scotland, at the expence of 300*l.*, and was preſented by him to the Faculty. In 1705 the Faculty purchaſed and ſtill poſſeſs a large collection of coins and medals. They are chiefly Greek, Roman, Saxon, Scottiſh, and Engliſh; but no uſe is made of them. The books in this library are lent out to the members of the Faculty upon their receipts; and each member may obtain as many books as he thinks fit, ſubject to the obligation of reſtoring them at the end of a year.

LEARNING.

In all periods, Scotland has contributed her full proportion toward the maſs of literature and ſcience, with which Europe has been edified and adorned; and the good ſenſe and liberal policy of the nation have been ſuch, that knowledge has not been monopolized by one claſs, while thoſe in inferior ſtations have been left deſtitute of the very elements of learning and means of thinking, but inſtruction to a certain degree has been diffuſed among all ranks of people. How far ſuch general education might be beneficial in a rich, corrupt, and luxurious community, may be the ſubject of ſome ſpeculation, but in Scotland it has produced the beſt effect, in imparting and ſuſtaining an honeſt pride and manly ſelf-denial, and in encouraging conſcious worth to ſeek independence, if not to be found at home, through the paths of induſtry, utility, and perſeverance in foreign climes. Hence among the uſeful practitioners in every liberal art in all countries, the natives of Scotland are to be found, while they never augment the number of needy, pro-

profligate adventurers, or ſwell the diſgraceful maſs of an ignorant and turbulent rabble.

Schools. In every pariſh is a ſchool eſtabliſhed by act of parliament, whoſe maſter has a ſalary from the public, and the ſcholars allow him a ſmall ſum quarterly. In country ſchools, they teach writing and arithmetic, and reading Engliſh, and in ſome Latin. In the royal burghs they teach Latin and Greek, and have tolerable ſalaries; beſides that each ſcholar gives two ſhillings or two ſhillings and ſixpence a quarter; and in theſe ſchools they teach nothing elſe, having Engliſh and writing ſchools beſides in all places where they have grammar ſchools. In country pariſhes, the ſchoolmaſter is uſually precentor. For a continual ſupply of miniſters in the kirk of Scotland, it was ordained by the General Aſſembly ſitting at Edinburgh, in 1645, that a number of pious youths, of good expectations and approved abilities, ſhould be choſen, and ſent burſars, or exhibitioners, to the univerſities, by the ſeveral preſbyteries of Scotland, every preſbytery conſiſting of twelve kirks, being required to ſend and maintain one burſar yearly at the univerſity; and where the preſbyteries are fewer in number, they are to join with other preſbyteries to make up the number: and the overplus of the number to be ordered and diſpoſed by the preſbyteries and ſynods; and their books to bear record thereof. Theſe burſars are to be allowed for their maintenance 100*l.* Scots per annum at leaſt, which is to be taken out of the kirk penalties; and the ſaid maintenance to be collected by the moderator of every preſbytery, by equal portions, at the winter and ſummer ſynods. The time of the burſars' continuance at the univerſity is not to exceed four years; if before that time any of theſe burſars ſhould be removed by death, or called to a particular charge, another is to ſucceed in his room. All burſars of theology are obliged to bring teſtimonies from their univerſities, of their proficiency and good behaviour, and be alſo ready to give a proof of their labours at the ſeveral ſynods, if required: and if they are found deficient, their exhibitions are taken away and given to others. Beſides burſars from preſbyteries, there are alſo others maintained by noblemen and gentlemen, miniſters and others, who have left great ſums of money for that end; and by a gift of William III. divers ſtudents have conſiderable allowances to ſtudy beyond ſeas; which gift is charged upon the revenues of the late biſhops.

Universities. There are in Scotland four univerſities, which are mentioned according to their antiquity.

Saint Andrew's. This univerſity is ſituated in the town of the ſame name in the county of Fife. It appears to have been

been begun in 1411, by Henry Wardlaw, then biſhop of Saint Andrew's. It was confirmed, on the following year, by Pope Benedict the Thirteenth. The ſeminary was encouraged by James the Firſt; but it was not till 1444 that funds appear to have been provided for rendering it permanent. It afterwards conſiſted of three colleges; viz. St. Salvadore, founded by James Kennedy, Biſhop of St. Andrew's, in 1458; St. Leonard's, fouuded by Prior Hepburn, in 1512; and St. Mary's, founded by Biſhop John Hamilton, 1552. In each of theſe colleges were lecturers of theology, as well as in philoſophy, languages, &c. In the reign of James the Sixth, 1579, under the direction of George Buchanan, the univerſity was new modelled, and St. Mary's college was appropriated to the ſtudy of theology, and is therefore diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Divinity-college, or the New-college. In 1747, on a petition from the maſters of the two colleges of St. Salvadore and St. Leonard, the parliament formed them into one ſociety, under the deſignation of the United College, but they are independent of each other in their revenues and diſcipline. The *ſenatus academicus*, or univerſity-meeting, conſiſts of the principal and profeſſors of both colleges. The library belongs alſo to the univerſity. The rector is choſen by an aſſembly called the *comitia* of the univerſity, conſiſting of the rectory, principal, and profeſſors of both colleges, with the ſtudents of divinity, of moral and of natural philoſophy. All theſe maſters and ſtudents are divided according to the place of their birth, into four nations, Fifans, Anguſians, Lothians, and Albans; which laſt claſs comprehends all who belong to none of the firſt three. Each nation chooſes an intrant, and the four intrants name the rector. If the votes of the intrants are equally divided, the laſt rector, who is preſes of the comitia, has the caſting voice. The only perſons eligible into the office of rectorate, are the principals and the profeſſors of divinity. The rector is a civil judge in the univerſity, before whom complaints may be brought againſt any of the members, and appeals from the courts of each college lie to him. In the rector's court the aſſeſſors have no power to controul his deciſions. In each college are apartments for lodging the ſtudents, for which no rent is due. There is alſo a public table for the burſars or penſioners on the foundation, who are very numerous. In the united college there is a ſeparate table for ſuch ſtudents as choſe to board themſelves. One of the maſters preſides at each table. The principal and profeſſors wear black gowns, and the ſtudents of the united college ſcarlet. The ſeſſion of college annually laſts about ſix months and a half; and in all the Scottiſh univerſities

ſities the ſeſſion is uninterrupted; that is, it does not conſiſt of ſeparate terms as in England.

GLASGOW. The univerſity of Glaſgow conſiſts of a ſingle college, the buildings of which ſtand on the eaſt ſide of the High Street. The front toward the ſtreet is of poliſhed ſtone, three ſtories in height, and 330 feet in length. The principal gate is in the centre, and has the royal arms placed over it. At ſome diſtance, to the right and left, are two other lofty arched gates; the one leads into a handſome court, in which the profeſſors reſide. The ſides of the area in this court have a ſtone pavement, and the middle is formed with gravel, with a well in the centre. The other ſide gate leads into a garden allotted to the principal of the univerſity. The chief gate, firſt mentioned, and which is in the centre of the front of the buildings, leads into a court or area ſurrounded by ſtone buildings. The open area is 88 feet long, and 44 feet broad. From this court is a paſſage eaſtward to a ſecond court, the area of which is 103 feet in length, and 79 feet in breadth. Both courts are paved with hewn free ſtone. In the outer or ſmaller weſtern court neareſt the ſtreet, is what is called the Faculty Hall of the univerſity. It contains two hiſtorical paintings by Reubens; the burial of our Saviour, and the martyrdom of Saint Katharine. The chapter room of the univerſity is in this court, and alſo the divinity-hall, and other apartments for the accommodation of different claſſes. The divinity-hall is ornamented by portraits of John Knox and Martin Luther, George Buchanan, William the Third and Mary his queen, Queen Anne, and others.

Over the paſſage or entry from the outer to the inner and larger court, is the ſteeple of the college. The inner court contains halls, claſs rooms, and other apartments. On the ſouthern ſide of this innermoſt or eaſtern court, adjoining to the garden, is the library of the univerſity, a handſome and lofty apartment, containing about 20,000 volumes. Here are preſerved a conſiderable number of ſtones containing ancient inſcriptions or figures brought from the Roman wall between the Forth and Clyde. The garden of the univerſity is laid out in walks, lined with trees and hedges, but kept always in graſs. To the eaſtward, beyond the Molendinar Burn, over which a bridge is thrown, the territory aſcends, and in an elevated ſituation the obſervatory of the univerſity is placed. It contains a valuable apparatus for the ſtudy of aſtronomy, and in particular a reflecting teleſcope, conſtructed by Herſchel, ten feet in length, and ten inches in diameter. This univerſity has profeſſors in divinity, church hiſtory, Oriental languages, natural philoſophy, mathematics, moral philoſophy,

logic, Greek, humanity, civil law, medicine, anatomy, and botany, practical aſtronomy, materia medica, chemiſtry, midwifery, botany, natural hiſtory, drawing, and painting.

Beſide the regular profeſſors, the college has a chancellor, rector, dean of faculties, and principal. The ſeſſion of college commences in October or November, and terminates in May or June in different claſſes. Degrees are granted by the univerſity to ſtudents after examination; but the degree of doctor of divinity and doctor of laws is, both there and in other Scottiſh univerſities, conſidered as honorary. The college poſſeſſes conſiderable funds, which are managed by the principal and profeſſors, who fix from time to time the extent of their own ſalaries, which are moderate; ſo that their perſonal wealth depends in a great degree upon the fees received from ſtudents.

This univerſity was originally inſtituted by a bull from Pope Nicolas the Fifth, at the requeſt of James the Second; and William Turnbull, then biſhop of Glaſgow, and his ſucceſſors in that ſee, were appointed patrons of the univerſity. The bull is dated at Rome the 7th of January 1450. The univerſity was opened in the following year, and to give celebrity to the event, the biſhop publiſhed a bull which he obtained from the pope, granting an univerſal indulgence to all good Chriſtians who ſhould viſit Glaſgow in 1451. David Cadzow was the firſt rector. They had ſeveral charters and privileges. The magiſtrates of Glaſgow were required to ſwear a ſort of allegiance to the college, or that they would obſerve its whole immunities and ſtatutes. The moſt complete civil and criminal juriſdiction was conferred upon the rector of the univerſity; and whatever houſes were poſſeſſed by its members, the rents of them were ordained to be fixed by a jury, conſiſting half of members of the univerſity and half of citizens. Before the reformation the whole univerſity formed a general corporation, while at the ſame time it was divided into different faculties, which, like the different claſſes of tradeſmen in a borough, were diſtinct inferior corporations, enjoying peculiar immunities, property, and bye-laws. It is ſingular that when this univerſity was inſtituted, no funds appear to have been ſet apart for its ſupport, nor any ſalaries granted to thoſe employed in the laborious buſineſs of teaching, neither was any ſufficient authority conſtituted for rectifying diſorders that might occur. The conſequence was, that when the Roman Catholic hierarchy fell into pieces at the Reformation, and its property was ſeized by the crown or the nobles, this univerſity almoſt ceaſed to exiſt; gradually, however, the crown and individuals granted to it various donations, particularly of tithes and

and church property, and James the Sixth, in his minority, during the regency of Morton in 1577, granted it ſome eccleſiaſtical property, and a new charter of foundation, regulating its conſtitution, and confirming its previous privileges. Charles the Firſt granted to the college in 1641 the temporality of the biſhopric of Galloway. After the revolution in 1693, the ſum of 300*l.* per annum was granted to each of the Scottiſh univerſities out of the property of the aboliſhed biſhoprics in Scotland; and the college of Glaſgow, to ſecure payment of this ſum more effectually, obtained a leaſe for nineteen years of the rents of the archbiſhopric, and this leaſe has been periodically renewed by the crown. At preſent, by the conſtitution of the univerſity, the office of *chancellor* is uſually filled by ſome nobleman or other gentleman of rank in the country, choſen by the rector, dean of faculty, principal, and profeſſors. The chancellor, being the head of the univerſity, preſides in all its councils, and in his name are all academical degrees beſtowed.

The *rector* is choſen annually in the *comitia*; that is, in a court in which all the ſtudents, on this particular occaſion, are entitled to vote as well as the other members of the univerſity. He, with the advice of his aſſeſſors, whom he nominates, judges in all diſputes amongſt the ſtudents, and betwixt them and the citizens. He alſo ſummons and preſides in the meetings of the univerſity called for the election of his ſucceſſor, or for preparing addreſſes to the king, electing a member to the General Aſſembly, &c.

The officer next in rank is the *dean of faculty*, who is choſen annually by the rector, principal, and profeſſors. His office conſiſts in giving directions with regard to the courſe of ſtudies; in judging, together with the rector, principal, and profeſſors, of the qualifications of thoſe who deſire to take academical degrees; and in ſuch meetings as are called for theſe purpoſes, he, in abſence of the rector, preſides.

There have been ſeveral valuable donations to this univerſity, one is called *Snell's Foundation*, and another *Anderſon's Inſtitution*, but one of the moſt important was that made by the late Dr. William Hunter of London. He, by his will, bequeathed his muſeum to the univerſity, reſerving the uſe of it for thirty years to his nephew, (and failing him to his partner,) for the purpoſe of promoting anatomical and natural knowledge. He alſo left to the univerſity 8000*l.* ſterling, to be paid to them within two years, one-half of the intereſt whereof to be applied for ſupporting the muſeum while in London; the other half, together with the capital, to be at the immediate diſpoſal of the univerſity, for the purpoſe of buying ground, and erecting

erecting proper buildings for the reception of the muſeum. The principal articles of the muſeum are, a moſt curious and valuable library of books and manuſcripts; his own large and incomparable anatomical preparations; a choice collection of natural curioſities, including, among other particulars, the large collection of ſhells, corals, inſects, and ſnails, of the late Dr. Fothergill; and a cabinet of coins and medals, ancient and modern, of which the different ſeries are confeſſedly the moſt complete and beſt connected of any in Europe, and are ſaid (this laſt article alone) to have coſt him upwards of 25,000*l.* ſterling. This donation, by the deceaſe of the intermediate aſſignees, has taken effect.

ABERDEEN. In this place are two univerſities, totally diſtinct and ſeparate from each other, and which ſeparately confer the uſual degrees. The Mariſchal College and Univerſity belongs to New Aberdeen, and the King's College to Old Aberdeen. The *Mariſchal College* and Univerſity was founded and well endowed by George Earl Mariſchal of Scotland, by a charter dated the 2d April 1593. The original foundation was a principal and two profeſſors of philoſophy; but by ſome munificent donations, there have been ſince added another profeſſorſhip of philoſophy, one of divinity, and others for mathematics, chemiſtry, medicine, and oriental languages, and many burſaries for poor ſtudents. The buildings are ſituated in the Broad-ſtreet of New Aberdeen, and contain, beſide lecture-rooms for the different claſſes, the public ſchool for conferring degrees, a common hall ornamented with ſome fine paintings by Jamieſon and others, the library, and a ſmall muſeum of natural hiſtory and antiquities. The college alſo contains an obſervatory well furniſhed with aſtronomical apparatus. The officers are, the chancellor, the rector, the dean of faculties, the regent, who is alſo profeſſor of Greek, and the principal.

The *King's College* is the chief ornament of Old Aberdeen, and is a large and ſtately fabric. It appears that there exiſted an univerſity here as early as the reign of Malcolm the Fourth; but the preſent college was founded by Biſhop Elphinſtone, who obtained, in the year 1494, a bull from Pope Alexander, inſtituting in the city of old Aberdeen or Aberdon, *ſtudium generale*, for theology, canon and civil law, medicine, the liberal arts, and every lawful faculty privileged to grant degrees according to the merits of the ſtudents; which degrees beſtow all privileges, &c. *ubicunque terrarum*, which belong to any other univerſity. The college was founded in 1506, and being taken under the immediate protection of the king, it was denominated the King's College. James IV. and Biſhop Elphinſtone endowed it with very large revenues. The biſhop of Aberdeen for the time was declared

declared to be chancellor of the univerſity. The building is ancient, containing a chapel, library, muſeum, common hall, and rooms for the lectures; and a long uniform range of modern houſes for the accommodation of the profeſſors, and ſuch ſtudents as chooſe to live in the college. Behind is the garden of the college, and the principal's houſe and garden. The library and muſeum are well furniſhed. There are burſaries for poor ſtudents, the funds for the ſupport of which amount to near 17,000l. The ſeſſion laſts five months, beginning in November. The officers are, a chancellor, generally a nobleman of high rank; a rector, entitled Lord Rector; a principal, a ſub-principal, and a procurator, who has charge of the funds. The profeſſors are, of humanity or Latin, Greek, three of philoſophy, Oriental languages, civil law, divinity, and medicine.

The crown is ſuperior or patron of both colleges, having ſucceeded to the King's College upon the abolition of epiſcopacy, and to the latter on the attainder of the late earl mariſchal; but has never interfered in the elections of their chancellors or rectors. Different attempts have been made to unite the two into one univerſity and one college, but hitherto without effect.

Edinburgh. The capital of Scotland could not boaſt of a regular univerſity till the year 1582. Before this period, however, teachers of philoſophy and divinity had been long eſtabliſhed in the city. That illuſtrious and accompliſhed monarch, James I. anxious to promote the learning of the times among his people, had, after his return from his long captivity in England, invited a number of learned Franciſcans to his country, and conferred on them grants, and erected houſes for them in various diſtricts. The citizens of Edinburgh, zealous to promote the ſame end, ſeconded the views of their enlightened prince. They built for the reception of theſe friars a magnificent convent; but one of the learned monks, Cornelius of Zirichzen, thinking the ſplendid apartments which the generoſity of the citizens had provided ill ſuited to the bare-footed mendicants of the order of St. Francis, modeſtly declined accepting the appointment. By the perſuaſion, however, of James Kennedy, Archbiſhop of St. Andrew's, and founder of St. Salvador's college in that city, Cornelius fixed his reſidence in Edinburgh, where he himſelf, his brethren, and their ſucceſſors, taught philoſophy and divinity until the year 1559. The reformation in religion, and the conſequent diſſolution of religious houſes at that period, aboliſhed this inſtitution, to make way for one which was in time to throw light upon ſcience, add luſtre to learning, and enlarge in no ſmall degree the boundaries

daries of human knowledge. The houſe occupied by theſe friars ſtood on the ſouth ſide of the Graſs-market, almoſt oppoſite the foot of the lane called the Weſt-bow; and the gardens belonging to it were by an act of the town council in 1561 converted into a burial place, which ſtill, from its former proprietors, retains the name of the Grey Friars' Church-yard.

In the year 1566, when the reformed religion was fully eſtabliſhed, the citizens of Edinburgh petitioned their royal miſtreſs for the lands and other property in the neighbourhood of the city, which belonged to the Black and Grey Friars. Their requeſt was in part complied with, and the inhabitants in conſequence reſolved to erect an univerſity. A bequeſt of eight thouſand merks, Scottiſh money, which had been left for this purpoſe by Robert Reid, Biſhop of Orkney, and preſident of the court of ſeſſion, who died at Dieppe on the 14th of September 1558, likewiſe encouraged them in their undertaking. In 1563, they had purchaſed the property of the collegiate church of St. Mary in the Field, (*Sanctæ Mariæ in campis*,) as a ſite for their intended college, and afterwards made attempts to carry the plan into execution. The oppoſition they met with, however, in the outſet of their undertaking, from the Archbiſhop of St. Andrew's and Glaſgow, and the eccleſiaſtics of the ſee of Aberdeen, induced them for a time to relinquiſh it; and in the mean-time the Grammar or High School was erected. The members of the colleges in theſe cities, which had been erected more than a century before, were perhaps afraid that the projected univerſity in Edinburgh might rival their fame, and as the metropolis was not yet ranked among the biſhopricks of the north, the eccleſiaſtics looked with a jealous eye on its riſing conſequence.

In the year 1580, however, the building was begun, and the preceding year a collection of books had been left to the intended univerſity by Mr. Clement Little, as a foundation for a library. A charter of erection was granted by James VI. in 1582; and in 1583 the college was opened for the reception of ſtudents. Robert Rollock, of St. Salvador's College, St. Andrew's, being appointed profeſſor of humanity, began teaching in the lower hall of *Hamilton Houſe*, within the precincts of the college, in the month of October that year. Soon after, Rollock, finding the ſtudents who reſorted to the new univerſity rather indifferently grounded in the ancient languages, recommended as an aſſiſtant one Duncan Nairn, to prepare the young ſtudents for their initiation into a more perfect knowledge of the Greek and Roman claſſics.

In 1585 this infant ſeminary received a temporary check from the plague appearing in Edinburgh which began in May, and con-

continued its ravages till the January following. On this occaſion great part of the inhabitants left the town, but "nevertheles," according to Robert Birrel, "ther dyed of peipell wich ver not abill to flee, 14 hundredth and ſome odd." Notwithſtanding this alarming calamity the magiſtrates perſevered with unwearied diligence in the proſecution of their plan, for in the beginning of the next year the college was incloſed within high walls. A third profeſſor of philoſophy being now choſen, Rollock was advanced to the ſtation of principal of the college, on the 29th February 1586.

On the recommendation of the lords of ſeſſion, the faculty of advocates, and the ſociety of writers to the ſignet, who each gave a ſum for his eſtabliſhment, a profeſſor of law was now choſen. But inſtead of giving prelections on law, the new profeſſor taught the humanity claſs, which fell vacant on the promotion of Rollock to be the head of the college. The annual ſalary of the profeſſors at this time was 150 merks ſcots.

In the year 1617, ſoon after the King's return from the court of St. James's to that of Holyrood-houſe, he was much pleaſed at the progreſs which his favourite univerſity had made during his abſence, a period of thirteen years. A public hall, a divinity ſchool, and other apartments were erected, and ſo much ſatisfied was the king with the inſtitution that he reſolved to honour the univerſity with his preſence at a public diſputation in philoſophy. But the buſineſs of the public while he remained at Holyrood-houſe engroſſing entirely his attention, he invited the profeſſors of the college to meet him at Stirling. They accordingly did ſo in the chapel royal of that town on the 29th of July 1617, and in the preſence of the king, the nobility, and many of the learned men of England and Scotland, a diſputation took place in which the king himſelf bore no inconſiderable ſhare. After ſupper, James invited the profeſſors into his preſence, and highly pleaſed with the ingenuity and learning which had been diſplayed in the courſe of the debate, addreſſed them in a ſtrain of punning panegyric peculiar to that pedantic monarch. His remarks were afterwards turned into miſerable rhyme, of which the following are the concluding verſes:

"To their deſerved praiſe have I
"Thus played upon their names;
"And will this college hence be call'd
"*The college of King James.*"

The king accordingly, in a letter to the magiſtrates of Edinburgh, dated at Paiſley the 25th of July 1617, obſerves that as he "gave the firſt being and beginning thereunto," ſo he

"thoit it worthie to be honoured with" a "name of" his "awin impoſition." The magiſtrates, therefore, in compliance with the wiſhes of the royal godfather, called the infant univerſity "The college of King James," which name it ſtill retains.

The liberality of James and the generoſity of private benefactors ſoon enabled the univerſity to advance rapidly in celebrity. Sir William Niſbet, provoſt of Edinburgh, in 1619, gave 1000*l.* Scots toward the maintenance of a profeſſor of divinity; and the common council, on the 20th of March 1620, not only nominated a profeſſor for that faculty, but alſo one for mathematics, and another for phyſic.

During the reign of the unfortunate Charles I., the chairs in the univerſity ſeem to have been filled with able teachers. In that troubleſome time, when civil diſcord deſolated the country, the names of Andrew Ramſay, to whoſe Latin poem on the "Creation" Lauder aſſerted that Milton was much indebted in his "Paradiſe Loſt," and John Adamſon the friend and contemporary of Drummond of Hawthornden, may be mentioned as belonging to the college of Edinburgh.

In the uſurpation that followed, if there were not many teachers of merit, yet Robert Leighton, afterwards archbiſhop of Glaſgow, who at this time filled a chair in the univerſity, formed an illuſtrious exception. Cromwell endowed the univerſity of Edinburgh with an annuity of 200*l.* ſterling.

William III. alſo beſtowed on the univerſity an annuity of 300*l.* ſterling to be paid out of his treaſury and biſhops' rents in Scotland; 100*l.* of which was for the ſupport of a profeſſor of theology, beſides the profeſſors of divinity already eſtabliſhed, and 200*l.* for twenty exhibitioners at 10*l.* each per annum. Part of this grant, however, was withdrawn by his ſucceſſor Queen Anne, by which means a profeſſor and fifteen ſtudents (exhibitioners) were diſcharged from the benefaction.

For a long period, little elſe was taught in the univerſity of Edinburgh beſides the dead languages, the divinity and philoſophy of the ſchools, and ſome branches of the mathematics then in general uſe. After the Reſtoration, Revolution, and the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover, however, profeſſors of other departments of ſcience were appointed; and in the year 1721 the ſchool of medicine, which has ſince riſen to ſuch unparalled eminence, was founded. Many excellent profeſſors in all the various departments of ſcience have adorned this univerſity, but its celebrity does not reſt merely on the merits of its teachers. Theſe indeed were the cauſes from which the effect has followed. The perſons educated at this ſeminary, many of whom have made a diſtinguiſhed figure in the world for

nearly a century paſt, likewiſe reflect a high luſtre on the place where they were firſt initiated into the principles of ſcience and true philoſophy. And this univerſity has reared many of thoſe who as ſtateſmen, lawyers, divines, phyſicians, mathematicians, poets, and orators now exhibit on the extended theatre of merit.

The mean appearance which the old buildings of the univerſity exhibited, ſo ill ſuited to the fame which it had acquired, was long a ſubject of general complaint. The difficulties which preſented themſelves to the projection of a new building however becoming leſs formidable, a "memorial relating to the univerſity of Edinburgh" was drawn up by one of its profeſſors in the year 1768. In this memorial a propoſal for rebuilding the fabric of the college on a regular plan, on the ſite of the old buildings, was ſubmitted to the conſideration of the public; voluntary contributions were to be received from patriotic individuals, and places were to be opened for ſubſcriptions under the management of proper perſons, in order to raiſe a fund ſufficient for carrying on the deſign. This propoſal ſeemed for a time to intereſt the public; but the means being inſufficient to realize the project, it was laid aſide till a more favourable opportunity ſhould preſent itſelf. This did not occur till after the American war, when the magiſtrates of the city ſet on foot a ſubſcription for erecting a new ſtructure, according to a deſign which had been prepared by the late celebrated architect Mr. Robert Adam. Conſiderable ſums having been thus obtained, part of the old building was pulled down, and the foundation ſtone of the new college was laid on the 16th of November 1789 by Lord Napier, as grand maſter maſon of Scotland. The building for ſome time went on rapidly; but the ſum collected, though large, being far from ſufficient, it was neceſſarily ſtopped. The north-weſt corner is the only part which has been quite completed, but a ſum of money having been given by his majeſty for forwarding the work, the eaſt front has been nearly finiſhed. The greater part of the building however appears like a vaſt ruin; and it is probable that unleſs it is made a national concern, and a grant of money is given by parliament for its completion, it will long remain unfiniſhed.

The ſtudents who attend the univerſity of Edinburgh are not, like moſt others in the kingdom, obliged to adopt any particular mode in their living. They mix promiſcuouſly with the inhabitants of the city, and live in the manner beſt ſuited to their circumſtances and inclinations. Neither do the rules of the college require that they ſhould appear in any peculiar dreſs. In the choice of their academical purſuits alſo they are

left at perfect freedom. The chairs have always been filled by able, often by very eminent men.

The *library* is valuable and extenſive. It owed its firſt beginning to the teſtamentary donation of Mr. Clement Little, advocate, in 1580. An apartment for holding the books was erected at that time in the church-yard of St. Giles (now the Parliament Square); but the college being founded in the following year, they were removed there in 1582. There are properly two libraries belonging to the Univerſity; but one of theſe conſiſting moſtly of books in divinity, is appropriated ſolely to the uſe of the ſtudents of theology. In the library are many curious manuſcripts and intereſting hiſtorical documents; among which are the original contract of Mary Queen of Scots with the dauphin of France; a Bohemian proteſt againſt the council of Conſtance for burning John Huſs in 1417, with 105 ſeals of Bohemian and Moravian nobles annexed; and ſome oriental manuſcripts. Here is alſo kept a fine copy of Fordoun's Scotichronicon, beautifully written on vellum. The library room is adorned with ſeveral portraits, the chief of which are thoſe of Robert Rollock, the firſt principal, King James VI., Napier the inventor of logarithms, John Knox, Principal Carſtairs, Thomſon the author of the Seaſons, the late celebrated Principal Robertſon, and Provoſt Elder. The college library receives a copy of every book entered at Stationers' Hall. The only other fund for its ſupport is the money paid by ſtudents at matriculation; and 5*l.* given by each profeſſor at his admiſſion. The amount of theſe ſums is uncertain, but has been eſtimated at about 150*l. per annum.* The books are under the care of a librarian and an under librarian, who are both appointed by the college. The muſeum of natural hiſtory belonging to the Univerſity is ſmall, but the number of ſpecimens is daily increaſing. The muſeum of anatomical preparations is particularly valuable, owing to the exertions of the profeſſors in this department. There is alſo a collection of anatomical preparations, belonging to the profeſſor of midwifery.

The ſeſſions of the college continue for about ſix months, beginning in October and November, and ending in April and May. The annual number of ſtudents who frequent this ſeminary is from 1200 to 1400.

The botanic garden and the obſervatory are eſtabliſhments well deſerving of notice, and the ſtudies of anatomy and medicine are much aſſiſted by lectures delivered at the Royal Infirmary.

Edinburgh High School. In the account given of various towns and cities, notice has been taken of their eſtabliſhed ſchools; the High School of Edinburgh is intitled to particular atten-

attention, and classes among the national establishments. The first attempt toward its establishment was in 1519, when for its encouragement the magistrates prohibited the books taught in the High School to be made use of in private schools. Before the end of that century, it was established in its present form, and consists of a rector and four masters. Annually in the month of October boys are received into the first class, and remain with the master to whom they first enter during four years; after which they are removed into the rector's class, where they remain one or two years. In this way there are five classes of different years' standing, and each master is occupied only with his own class. Once a week the rector visits one of the classes in rotation, the master of which at the same time visits and examines the rector's class. The masters have trifling salaries; the stated fees are five shillings quarterly, though ten shillings and sixpence are now generally given; and the rector receives quarterly one shilling from all the boys in the four junior classes in addition to the fees of his own class. The school-house consists of five apartments, besides a great-hall where the boys meet for prayers, and a room in which a library is kept. It is a plain stone building, in the middle of a considerable inclosed area. There is an annual examination of the school in the month of August, at which the magistrates of the city, the professors of the university, the clergy, and such men of letters, and relations of the boys, or others as think fit, are allowed to attend. The parents and tutors of the boys are at all times admitted, when they please, to observe their progress.

REVENUE.

In this division the authority of Sir John Sinclair is principally relied on.

Historians differ materially, that author observes, in the representations they give of the ancient revenue of the Scottish monarchs. Dr. Robertson says that their income was scanty and precarious; and that they were kept in continual indigence, anxiety, and dependence: whereas it is asserted by others, that such accounts are greatly exaggerated; and that the kings of Scotland possessed property and wealth fully adequate to their wants, and at least equal, in proportion to the extent and opulence of their dominions, to those of the other princes of Europe. The sources of their revenues were similar to those of the other kingdoms of Europe at that time. They possessed considerable domains, which on the one hand were perpetually

diminiſhing by grants to individuals, and a profuſe liberality to the church; and on the other, received continual acceſſions from the confiſcations which ſo often took place in ages of ſuch turbulence and confuſion. The ſovereigns of Scotland alſo enjoyed the cuſtoms, mines, and fiſhings, which were not unproductive. Occaſionally they poſſeſſed valuable property and eſtates in England; and taxes were ſometimes levied on great emergencies for public purpoſes.

The firſt tax levied in Scotland, at leaſt ſo far as can be traced by record, was for the purpoſe of procuring from the Engliſh crown a full and complete renunciation of its claims to the homage and dependency of that country. William the Lion was unfortunately taken priſoner by the Engliſh, whilſt he was beſieging the caſtle of Alnwick in Northumberland. In order to procure his releaſe, both the king and the people of Scotland became bound to acknowledge the feudal ſuperiority of the Engliſh crown; and Henry II. then king of England actually received the homage of William and his ſubjects; but Richard I. in order to procure money for the holy war, and preſerve his dominions in peace during his abſence, agreed, in conſideration of 10,000 marks, ſterling, to abandon, and ſolemnly to renounce, all claim to the homage of the Scottiſh crown. It is impoſſible at preſent to aſcertain whether the ſum was levied by voluntary contribution, by the authority of the crown, or by the ſanction of parliament. It is only known, that, as it was intended for the general benefit, it was not paid from the private revenue of the ſoveregn, (too inconſiderable indeed to bear ſuch a burden,) but by the public at large.

In the reign of Alexander III., in 1250, the whole royal income is eſtimated at 12,000 marks. The crown lands having ſuffered greatly during the wars between England and Scotland, Robert Bruce obtained from parliament in 1326 a ſubſidy of the tenth penny for his life. His ſon, David, being taken priſoner in England, his ranſom was fixed at 100,000 marks, which was afterwards increaſed to 100,000*l.* ſterling, which was ſcrupulouſly diſcharged, the laſt payment being made to Richard II. in 1383.

There ſtill remain two rolls, which, though rather incomplete, furniſh evidence ſufficiently ſatisfactory of the revenues and expences of the Scottiſh crown at the commencement of David's reign. The firſt is, an account by Reginalde More, lord chamberlain of Scotland, of the receipts and iſſues from the 9th of December 1329, to the 20th June 1330. The total receipts, including 84*l.* 1*s.* 1*d.* of crown rents, &c. amounted only to 1,685*l.* 16*s.* 2½*d.*, and the expences to 3,436*l.* 8*s.* 5*d.*

The

The ſurplus expenditure conſequently was 1,750*l.* 12*s.* 2½*d.* The other contains the receipts and expences from the 14th of March 1330, to the 14th of December 1331. The whole receipts during this period came to 9,415*l.* 13*s.*, the expences to 11,047*l.* 15*s.* 7½*d.*, and thus there was another deficiency to the amount of 1,632*l.* 2*s.* 7½*d.* That there ſhould be ſuch an unfavourable balance is not to be wondered at; for there is included in the account of the expenditure the ſum of 6,866*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* in complete payment of 30,000 marks, which by the treaty of peace concluded between England and Scotland, the latter was obliged to pay, to compenſate for the damage which the Engliſh had recently ſuſtained by the Scottiſh incurſions.

The period to which this account relates exceeding the ſpace of a year, and there being included in it ſome contributions to aid the crown in diſcharging its debts to England, renders it difficult to make an exact calculation of the royal income. It appears, however, that there was received in the above period 487*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* from the different towns in the kingdom, and 12*l.* 14*s.* 1½*d.* from that of Lanark. The various feudal prerogatives, for the collecting of which the ſheriffs in the different counties were reſponſible, came to 1,474*l.* 18*s.* 0¼*d.*, making in all 3,769*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* The account was for the ſpace of about twenty-two months; conſequently the receipts per month would be 171*l.* 6*s.* 6¼*d.*, and per annum 2,227*l.* 4*s.* 9¼*d.* of the money of Scotland at that time.

As to the real value of this ſum, we are enabled to form an idea from the price of different articles being inſerted in theſe accounts. It appears from them, that a ton of wine came only to 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* Scotch; that ſeven chaldron two bolls of wheat came to 91*l.* 19*s.* 10½*d.* Scotch, which is about 16*s.* 1½*d.* per Scotch boll, and 1*l.* 1*s.* 4½*d.* per Engliſh quarter; that the price of a mart or ox, fatted to be killed at the term of Martinmas in November, was 10*s.* or 10*d.* ſterling; and the price of a ſheep only 14*d.* Scotch. Thus, though the ſum was ſmall, the real value of this monarch's income was not inconſiderable.

James the Firſt of Scotland, among his other misfortunes, had to number an unjuſt detention in England of fourteen years' duration, for the expence of which he was aſſeſſed at 40,000*l.* ſterling, and obliged to leave twelve ſons of the principal families of Scotland as hoſtages for the payment. To raiſe this ſum, two acts were paſſed, the one impoſing a tax of twelve pence in the pound on all goods and rents, excepting drawing oxen, riding horſes, and utenſils of houſe; and the other, the following taxes.

	Scotch money. s.	d.
On each boll of wheat - - - -	2	0
On each boll of rye, bear, or peaſe - -	1	4
On each boll of oats - - - -	0	6
On each cow and her follower, of two years old -	6	8
On each wether, ſow, &c. - - -	1	0
On each drawing or ploughing ox, of and above three years old - - - -	6	0
On each wild mare and her follower, of three years old - - - - -	10	0

It is not to be wondered at that ſuch taxes, impoſed upon a people whoſe principal wealth conſiſted in their cattle, ſhould occaſion much clamour; and conſequently that it was found impoſſible to perſevere in levying it. With regard to the Scottiſh hoſtages (as we have no account of their being releaſed) it is ſuppoſed that they either died in England, or were diſmiſſed, when, in conſequence of the conteſt between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, both parties found it neceſſary to cultivate the friendſhip of Scotland.

The poverty of the crown in the reign of James II. was ſo very great, that it occaſioned in the words of an old act, "the povertie of the realme in general, and manie uther inconvenients are there throw, the quhilkis were too lang to expreme." To remedy ſo great an evil, it was enacted, that the whole of the cuſtoms of Scotland ſhould be paid to the king alone; and ſuch as had penſions out of that branch of the revenue were to be otherwiſe ſatisfied. Lands of conſiderable extent alſo were unalienably annexed to the crown; and it was declared to be illegal to diſpoſe of them without the conſent of the eſtates. Such regulations have often been ordained; and in every country reſumptions have been practiſed. But public domains can hardly be retained by any law, however ſtrict, from the ſelfiſh intrigues of courtiers. Even in republics, thoſe who are in power are equally rapacious and ſucceſsful.

There is a curious account extant, of the public revenue of Scotland, in the reign of James III. as made up for the year 1474, by John, biſhop of Glaſgow, then treaſurer. The receipts for compoſitions of charters, wards, marriages, reliefs, eſcheats, remiſſions, &c. amounted to 3,240*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.* Scotch. In the diſcharge it is ſtated that the expence for the king's perſon amounted to 118*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*, that of the queen to 113*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*, and that of the prince to 41*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*, making in all for the expence of the royal family 273*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Scotch. The balance being 2,967*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Scotch, it is probable was applied to the maintenance of the houſehold and to national

purpoſes. But the real value of ſuch an income ought not to be eſtimated according to modern ideas. Its importance ought to be calculated, not from its nominal amount, but from what it could then purchaſe; which, according to the prices then eſtabliſhed, would be about 10,000 oxen.

During the long minority of James V. (who ſucceeded to the crown when ſcarcely two years of age) the royal property and income were ſo much waſted or embezzled by thoſe who governed the kingdom, that when he came of age he found himſelf immerſed in the greateſt difficulties. Even the royal palaces were ſtript of their furniture, and haſtening to ruin: nor was there any money remaining in the exchequer. As an expedient for procuring wealth, James heſitated whether he ſhould attack the clergy or the nobles; each tendered gifts to avert the danger from their claſs, and adviſed the king to direct it toward the other, but his death freed both parties from their apprehenſions.

Conſiderable quantities of gold ore were found about this time, at Crawford Moor in Clydeſdale; miners from Germany were employed to dig for and collect it; and when James in 1537, was married at Paris to the daughter of Francis I., mention is made of a number of covered cups filled with pieces of gold, the native produce of Scotland, which that monarch diſtributed among the gueſts who were preſent at the nuptial ceremony.

Among the curious and important events which diſtinguiſh the reign of Mary, a plan attempted to be enforced by the queen regent, her mother, during her minority, of impoſing a permanent tax upon land, and maintaining a ſtanding army, is not the leaſt remarkable. The greater nobles had ſo far degenerated from the ſpirit of their anceſtors, and dreaded ſo much the reſentment of the court, that in a general aſſembly of biſhops, earls, abbots, and lords, who called themſelves lords of the ſecret council, the plan was approved of; but about three hundred of the leſſer barons aſſembled in a body, and repreſented to the regent the diſgrace, the impolicy, and the injuſtice of ſuch a meaſure. The wealth of the clergy relieved the difficulties of the crown, and a portion of it, when confiſcated, was applied in providing for the maintenance of the Proteſtant miniſters, who enjoyed as yet no certain means of ſubſiſtence. The whole of the eccleſiaſtical revenues in Scotland at that time amounted to 217,473*l.* 13*s.* 10½*d.* Scotch, of which the third, or 72,491*l.* 6*s.* 7½*d.* was appropriated to theſe public purpoſes. Mary unwillingly conſented to the propoſal; and her attachment to the religious and political principles of the court of Rome being well known, notwithſtanding

ſtanding her countenancing ſo obnoxious a meaſure, ſhe received not long after a papal ſubſidy of 8,000 crowns.

During this reign, many odious modes of raiſing money were adopted. Some towns, ſuſpected of diſaffection to the queen, were fined, and heavy taxes were levied on the boroughs in general. An attempt was made to compel the citizens of Edinburgh to lend money to the crown; but they reſiſted ſo unprecedented an exaction, until ſufficient ſecurity was given for the ſum that was borrowed.

At the acceſſion of James VI. the public treaſury was ſo much exhauſted, that it could not furniſh the money neceſſary to equip ſome veſſels for attacking the infamous Earl of Bothwell, who had taken ſhelter in the Orkneys, where he ſubſiſted by piracy; and he might have remained in the undiſturbed poſſeſſion of thoſe iſlands for ſome time, had not James Douglas Earl of Morton defrayed the charges required for ſo neceſſary an armament.

The king's affairs were ſo embarraſſed that he thankfully accepted an annual penſion of 5,000*l.* ſterling from Elizabeth. And although fond of the ſplendour of the hierarchy, yet he was prevailed upon to give his aſſent to an act by which the whole landed poſſeſſions of the church were annexed to the crown. This great reſource was however rendered of little avail by the profuſeneſs of James to his favourites, and in conſequence of all former grants having at the ſame time been confirmed.

The year 1597 was diſtinguiſhed by the greateſt tax that had ever been levied in Scotland. The ſum of 200,000 marks was raiſed for the purpoſe of ſending embaſſadors to foreign courts, to obtain the aſſiſtance of the continental powers, ſhould it be neceſſary, to inſure James's ſucceſſion to the Engliſh crown: of which 100,000 marks were to be paid from the ancient property of the church; 66,666 marks 8 ſhillings and 10 pennies by the barons and freeholders; and 33,333 marks 4 ſhillings and 6 pennies by the boroughs. Another tax was granted, in 1621, to continue for four years, of 30 ſhillings yearly, on every pound land of old extent, and of the twentieth penny of all intereſt due on bonds, bills, and other ſecurities.

There is an account extant of the revenue of the crown of Scotland, in the reign of Charles I., but it is impoſſible to aſcertain the real value of the income, from the variety of articles of which it conſiſts; for it contains not only the money received, but alſo the wheat, bear, malt, oats, oatmeal, mutton, capons, poultry, cunnings, (rabbits,) doves, onions, geeſe, ſalmon, herrings, butter, kids, martis, ſtirks, &c. paid

to

to the crown. From the ſame manuſcript it appears, that anno 1634 the penſions and gifts on the Scotch eſtabliſhment amounted to the following ſum.

Penſions payable in money - -	£ 302,859	Scotch.
275 chaldrons of victual converted into	32,300	
Total -	335,159	

There were alſo other conſiderable burdens; and the whole was ſo heavy a load, that his Scottiſh miniſters recommended to Charles, either to enforce the act that had been made for the reſumption of the crown lands, or to practiſe more economy.

The principal branch of the revenue of the crown at this time was the cuſtoms, which were let to farm, and produced, in 1628, the ſum of 133,666*l.* 13*s.* Scotch money; of which 74,666*l.* 13*s.* were paid upon the import of wines; and 59,000*l.* on all other goods brought into the kingdom.

The only parliamentary tax in this reign was granted in 1663: it was thirty ſhillings Scotch on every pound land of old extent; and the ſixteenth penny of all intereſt for the ſpace of ſix years; but it is not known what ſum it produced. On the ſubjugation of Scotland by the arms of Cromwell, the nation experienced the rigours and grievous burdens of a military government. Before the uſurpation, it is probable that the income of Scotland could not exceed 40,000*l.* ſterling per annum: whereas after that event, the following ſums were annually exacted:

Income of Scotland, as laid before Parliament, 7th April, 1659.

	Sterling.		
By aſſeſſments of 6,000*l.* a month - -	£ 72,000	0	0
By the income of the property of the crown, and the rents annually paid into the Exchequer - - - -	5,324	18	5½
By caſualties and uncertain rents - -	576	3	5
By compoſition of ſignatures - -	929	6	0
By cuſtoms, inward and outward, and exciſe of goods imported - - -	12,500	0	0
By the duty on ſea-coal - -	2,216	5	4
By ſalt duties - - - -	1,674	9	5
Exciſe on beer, ale, and aquæ-vitæ -	47,444	13	4
Forfeiture of ſmuggled goods - -	595	10	11½
Intereſt of money appropriated for the augmentation of the judges' ſalaries -	391	5	0
Total -	143,652	11	11

The expences of Scotland at that time were as follows:

To the army - - - -	£ 270,643	4	2
Salaries of the council and other officers -	9,410	11	0
Contingent charges of the council - -	350	0	0
Salaries to the court of Exchequer -	1,833	4	2
Contingent charges of the Exchequer -	80	10	2½
Salaries to the courts of juſtice - -	4,246	4	0
Contingent charges of the courts of juſtice -	485	12	0
To the commiſſioners of exciſe and cuſtoms -	4,177	9	6
Their contingent expences - -	771	9	4
Salaries to the court of admiralty -	304	8	8
Its contingent expences - -	167	14	1
Charges of an hoſpital - - -	587	10	6
Fire and candles to the army - -	5,297	19	4
Penſions and other temporary contingencies	8,915	15	9
	307,271	12	8½
The revenues of Scotland came per annum to	143,652	11	11
The balance conſequently was	163,619	0	9½

Thus it appears that Scotland, under a military and deſpotic government, inſtead of yielding a revenue adequate to its expences, was every year conſiderably deficient.

In the firſt parliament which Charles II. aſſembled, acts were paſſed, by which, beſides the ordinary crown revenues, 480,000*l.* Scotch, or 40,000*l.* ſterling, were granted during the king's life, partly to be levied by duties on the importation of foreign commodities, and partly by monthly rates upon the towns and counties. In addition to this annuity, the ſtates in 1665 impoſed a tax of forty ſhillings yearly, for the ſpace of five years, upon every pound land of old extent belonging to the temporality, and in the ſame proportion upon the lands belonging to the church, and the different boroughs in the kingdom, to aſſiſt the crown in the proſecuting the Dutch war.

During this reign, the military mode of levying money, by quartering ſoldiers in the houſes of thoſe who were deficient in the regular payment of their taxes, which had been firſt practiſed in 1649, during the grand rebellion, was re-enacted and too frequently practiſed.

In 1685, eight months' ceſs, as it was called, payable half-yearly, amounting to 576,000*l.* Scotch, or 48,000*l.* ſterling, was granted by parliament during the life of James the Second.

In the reign of William III. the Parliament of Scotland voted land taxes for ſeveral years, amounting, in the whole,

to

to 603,311*l.* ſterling; a poll tax proceeding gradually from ſmall tradeſmen who paid 4*s.* 2*d.* per annum, to dukes who were aſſeſſed at 8*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; hearth-money was alſo impoſed in Scotland, though reprobated in England, as a ſubſtitute for the aſſeſſment on the intereſt of money, which after repeated trials had been found untenable.

The revenue of Scotland at the Union conſiſted of the following particulars;

1. Crown rents which produced	-	£ 5,500
2. Feudal caſualties	-	3,000
3. The cuſtoms - -	-	30,000
4. The exciſe - - -	-	33,500
5. The poſt office - -	-	1,194
6. Coinage impoſitions -	-	1,500
7. The land tax - -	-	36,000
Total	-	110,694

To put both nations on an equal footing, it was agreed that 12,000*l.* of additional land tax ſhould be levied in Scotland; and it was ſtated by the Scotch commiſſioners, that when peace was concluded, the cuſtoms would probably yield 20,000*l.*, the exciſe, if properly collected, 16,500*l.*, and the poſt office 806*l.* per annum, in addition to their former produce, making in all 160,000*l.*; but the actual revenue at the Union, free of all charges, was only 110,694*l.* The debts of Scotland, however, were proportionably inconſiderable, being only about 160,000*l.* By the 15th article of the treaty of Union, the equivalent that Scotland was to receive for ſuch branches of the cuſtoms and exciſe levied in that country, as were appropriated to pay off the debts of England, contracted previouſly to the Union, was fixed at 398,085*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.* It was ſpecially provided, however, by the ſaid article, that any addition to the cuſtoms and exciſe, beyond the ſum of 63,500*l.* per annum, ſhould either be dedicated to public purpoſes in Scotland, or that an additional equivalent ſhould be paid to that country, in proportion to the increaſe of thoſe branches of the revenue; at leaſt in ſo far as they are applicable to the payment of the debts contracted by England before the two nations were incorporated together. It has been aſſerted, that the cuſtoms of England were over-rated, in order to render the equivalent as little as poſſible. There is reaſon to believe that large quantities of goods were, before Midſummer 1706, brought to England, and afterwards carried to Scotland, in order to get the drawback, and were fraudulently

fraudulently re-imported into England after the Union, duty free.

The progreſs of the revenue of Scotland being included, ſince the Union, in that of England, does not require any particular illuſtration. As now paid it may be conſidered under two heads. Firſt, the hereditary or private property of the crown. Secondly, the public income of the country.

There are various branches of the public revenue of Scotland to which the crown of Scotland lays claim as its hereditary and private property, more eſpecially certain crown rents and feudal caſualties; the rents of certain lands formerly poſſeſſed by the biſhops in Scotland; the new ſubſidy of the cuſtoms; a ſhare of the ſeizures made by cuſtom-houſe officers; a ſhare of the fines and forfeitures in the exciſe; the hereditary and temporary exciſe; ſome coinage duties; together with the produce of certain royal prerogatives.

As to the revenue which the nation at large derives from North Britain, as the ſame taxes with hardly any exceptions exiſt in Scotland as in England, the income of this part of the iſland may be conſidered under the ſame general heads; namely, cuſtoms, exciſe, ſtamps, and incidents, together with the taxes which are annually impoſed inſtead of being permanently granted.

The income derived from theſe ſeveral ſources in the year which ended on the fifth of January 1813, was,

Cuſtoms	£ 857,744	8	2
Exciſe	1,726,900	14	8½
Property tax	966,790	14	4
Land tax	24,551	10	4¼
Aſſeſſed taxes	412,977	19	11¾
Stamps	348,523	2	5
Poſt office	167,877	18	0
Miſcellaneous	14,526	9	8¼
Groſs	4,519,892	17	7¾
Off charges of management and compenſations and allowances to ſuperannuated and retired officers	364,293	13	8
Nett	4,155,599	3	11¾

The collection of theſe ſeveral impoſts is regulated on a plan exactly ſimilar to that adopted in England. There is a board of

of cuſtoms, with ſubordinate cuſtom-houſes in various ports; a board of exciſe and ſalt duties, with proper officers diſtributed through the country; a tax office, and a poſt office.

TRADE.

In the deſcription already given of the ſeveral counties of Scotland, mention has been made of the products, animal, vegetable, and mineral, which by the aid of induſtry may be rendered profitable to the people in the way of trade. Commerce was not in early times the favourite purſuit of this nation, although it was never utterly neglected, and occaſionally promoted with all the vigour of government, and the eagerneſs reſulting from a general ſenſe of advantage. The calamities ariſing from war, and the military ſpirit diffuſed among the people damped the zeal of commercial enterprize until a ſettled form of ſociety permitted the inhabitants of Scotland to uſe the bleſſings of their ſoil, and avail themſelves of their induſtry and ſagacity. Since that period the progreſs of England in the paths of commercial proſperity has not been more marked than that of Scotland; and the benefits of induſtry, integrity, and capital have been fully recognized and abundantly enjoyed.

Fisheries. Scotland is ſo favourably ſituated for all ſorts of fiſheries that a portion of induſtry has always been employed in that direction, and many writers have anxiouſly repreſented to government the propriety of extending, by bounties and all other means, the facility of applying to this mode of induſtry and ſource of profit. It is ſurmiſed, but apparently without ſufficient authority, that at a very remote period indeed, early in the ninth century, the people of the Netherlands ſupplied themſelves with ſalted fiſh from Scotland. In the twelfth century, however, the importance of this undertaking was well underſtood, protected by remiſſion of duties, and carried to ſuch an extent that the Frith of Forth was frequently covered with boats, manned by Engliſh, Scottiſh, and Belgic fiſhermen. In the thirteenth century, Aberdeen was famous for the curing of fiſh. In ſubſequent times ordinances were iſſued, ſtatutes enacted, corporations formed, and public money allotted for the extenſion and encouragement not only of the herring, cod, and other fiſheries for ſupply of food, but alſo of the whale fiſhery. Between the years 1751 and 1776 the herring fiſhery increaſed from two veſſels whoſe tons were 148, whoſe crews were 33 men and boys, and whoſe capture conſiſted only of 213 barrels of fiſh,

fiſh, to 294 veſſels bearing 14,193 tons, having as their crews 3,365 men and boys, and bringing home 51,863 barrels of fiſh. This advance was much accelerated by a timely bounty, which in 1776 exceeded 21,000*l.*, but nevertheleſs, during the American war, owing to the increaſed price of barrels, ſalt, naval ſtores, and ſeamen's wages, the buſineſs rapidly declined, and in 1782 only 147 buſſes, making 7,291 tons, manned with 1,067 perſons, and producing 13,457 barrels of fiſh, were employed. Since that time the buſineſs has been proſecuted with increaſed vigour, eſtabliſhments have been formed in advantageous poſitions for curing the fiſh taken, but ſtill, in the opinion of well informed writers, much, almoſt every thing, remains to be done; it is even ſuppoſed that the value of fiſh taken, conſumed, and exported, excluſive of the whale fiſhery, might be made to exceed ten millions ſterling.

In the deſcription of the ſeveral counties, notice has been taken of their commercial productions, and of various eſtabliſhments for the manufacture of metals and of linen, cotton, and other ſtuffs. The principal canals are enumerated in a general liſt in the ſecond volume of this work.

SHIPPING. In the year which ended on the 5th of January 1813, the ſhipping entered inwards was 3,403 veſſels, burthen 318,306 tons, and employing 20,792 men; the ſhips cleared outwards were 3,462, burthen 329,664 tons, and they had 22,423 men.

BANKS AND BANKERS. In Scotland are three chartered banks, called the Bank of Scotland, the Royal Bank, and the Britiſh Linen Company; their united capitals are eſtimated by Mr. Colquhoun at three millions and a half.

The Bank of Scotland, now called the Old Bank, was created by an act of parliament in 1695. The company were empowered to raiſe a joint ſtock of 1,200,000*l.* Scots, or 100,000*l.* ſterling. Their affairs are managed by a governor, deputy governor, and twenty-four directors. The capital ſtock is divided into ſhares, of which the ſmalleſt is 1,000*l.* Scots, and the largeſt 20,000*l.* In the election of office bearers, the qualifications requiſite are, that the governor muſt be poſſeſſed of at leaſt 8,000*l.* in the ſtock of the company, the deputy-governor, 6,000*l.* and 3,000*l.* for each of the directors. Proprietors who have a ſhare of 1,000*l.* of ſtock are entitled to vote in the election of managers; and thoſe who have ſtock above that ſum have a vote for every 1,000*l.*

In the year 1774, this company obtained an act to enlarge their capital to 2,400,000*l.* Scots, or 200,000*l.* ſterling, and it was provided that no one individal ſhould poſſeſs in the whole more than 40,000*l.* in ſtock, and the qualification for the offices of

of governor and directors was doubled. In 1784, 1792, and 1794, they obtained ſimilar powers, and their capital is now a million ſterling.

This company has eſtabliſhed branches in every conſiderable town in Scotland, excepting Glaſgow, which, in conſequence of an amicable adjuſtment, to avoid rivalſhip, is left to the royal bank. By agreement the latter has a branch at Glaſgow, and and no branch in any other town in Scotland.

The Bank was eſtabliſhed in a houſe down a narrow lane at the ſouth ſide of that part of the High Street called the Lawn Market; but, at a great expence, the company erected a magnificent ſtructure, which is ſituated to the northward of the High Street, in full view of Prince's Street. At the commencement of the building, very ſerious difficulties were experienced, in conſequence of the ſame circumſtance which formerly annoyed the architect of the North Bridge; it was found that the whole earth on that ſide of the ridge on which the High Street ſtands was not natural, but had been brought thither when the ground in the neighbourhood was originally laid out for building. The conſequence was, that after cutting down the ſide of the hill in ſearch of ſolid ground for a foundation to an immenſe depth, the hill above gave way, and overwhelmed the foundation that had been cleared out. The rubbiſh was no ſooner removed than the ſide of the hill again gave way repeatedly; ſo that the taſk of digging the foundation was ſeveral times renewed. In the mean while, the earth above, to ſome diſtance toward the High Street, began to open. Some very lofty buildings, deprived of the ſupport which they had received from the weight of earth adjoining to their foundations, next began to give way. The inhabitants removed, and the houſes were taken down. A ſufficiently firm foundation of natural clay having been at laſt obtained, the building was rapidly urged. It was reared in the moſt ſolid manner. Enormous quantities of mortar and maſſy ſtones were buried, and a fabric carried upwards, capable of reſiſting the incumbent weight of the mountain. It forms, upon the whole, a beautiful and moſt ſuperb fabric.

The Royal Bank. By the articles of union, Scotland was declared to be liable to the ſame duties which were levied by way of cuſtoms or exciſe in England, and theſe duties having been appropriated for the diſcharge of debts contracted by England before the Union, Scotland was to receive certain ſums as an equivalent. The proprietors of theſe ſums, to the extent of 248,550*l.* ſterling, were erected into a body corporate, under the name of the *Equivalent Company*; and obtained a royal charter, empowering ſuch of them as inclined to ſubſcribe their ſhares

in the joint ſtock for that purpoſe, to carry on the buſineſs of banking: theſe ſubſcribers having contributed a capital of 111,000*l.* were in 1727 erected into a body corporate, to be called, "*The Royal Bank of Scotland*," and the management of their affairs declared to be in a governor, deputy-governor, nine ordinary and nine extraordinary directors. Their capital in 1738 was encreaſed to 150,000*l.* In conſequence of the jealous and narrow policy, which till of late years was ſo common among commercial companies, when the Royal Bank was firſt erected, that company purchaſed up all the notes of the Bank of Scotland which they could obtain, and made ſuch a run upon this bank, as reduced it to conſiderable difficulties. To avoid ſuch diſtreſſes for the future, the Bank of Scotland, on the 9th of November 1730, began to iſſue 5*l.* notes, payable on demand, or 5*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* ſix months after their being preſented for payment, in the option of the bank. On the 12th of December 1732, the Royal Bank began to iſſue notes with a ſimilar clauſe. The other banking companies in Scotland found it convenient to follow the example. Bank notes, framed with theſe optional clauſes, and for the moſt trifling ſums, even 5*s.* ſterling, were generally iſſued and currently accepted in payment, ſo that ſilver was, in a manner, baniſhed; but an act of parliament in 1765 prohibited all promiſſory notes payable to the bearer under 1*l.* ſterling; and declared void all the optional clauſes.

The Britiſh Linen Company, with a capital of 100,000*l.*, was incorporated by royal charter in 1746, with a view to encourage the manufacture of linen in Scotland. By the conſtitution of this company, its affairs are declared to be under the management of a governor, deputy-governor, and five directors. In a department ſeparate from the linen trade it carries on the buſineſs of banking, and iſſues promiſſory notes like the two former companies.

BANKERS. The banking buſineſs, according to Mr. Colquhoun, is carried on by

Forty-three banking eſtabliſhments, where there are three and upwards in the principal towns.

Twenty-nine banking eſtabliſhments, where there are one and two in the inferior towns.

But as a large proportion of theſe are branches of the chartered banks, whoſe capitals are already ſtated, the private capitals may be eſtimated at about 800,000*l.*

THE

THE METROPOLIS.

HISTORY. EDINBURGH is one of the moſt ancient cities in the north of Europe; its name, as already has been obſerved, has defied the reſearches of etymologiſts, and its origin is not correctly ascertained by hiſtorians or antiquaries. Some circumſtances tend to involve in peculiar obſcurity the hiſtory of this city. It is ſituated in the Roman province called Valentia; which included the territory between the two celebrated Roman walls of Hadrian on the ſouth, which croſſed the iſland from Newcaſtle to Carliſle, and the wall of Antoninus on the north, from Carriden on the Forth to Dunglaſs on the river Clyde. This territory alſo, at a ſubſequent period, belonged to the Picts, and was conquered from them by the Scots under Kenneth II. As Edinburgh is ſituated within fifty-four miles of the Engliſh border, its neighbourhood was the ſcene of many ſanguinary conflicts, during ſeveral centuries. It is probable, that the ſingular rudeneſs of the territory on which Edinburgh is ſituated, with its precipices and abrupt declivities, which render it extremely inconvenient for an extenſive capital, were the very circumſtances which originally led to its eſtabliſhment, as, by rendering it of eaſy defence, they contributed to its preſervation in very barbarous times; at leaſt there is little doubt that the moſt rugged part of it, that is to ſay the caſtle, is the moſt ancient. The oldeſt appellation given to this fortreſs, is 'The Caſtle of Agnes's Hill.' It was likewiſe diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of *Caſtrum Puellarum*, or the 'Maidens' Caſtle,' ſuppoſed from its being the reſidence of the daughters of the kings of the Picts till the time of their marriage. The name of the city has alſo been aſcribed to Edwin, a Saxon prince of Northumberland, who began his reign in 617, and conquered much territory from the Picts.

In the early periods, the annals of Edinburgh frequently record the injuries inflicted in the invaſions of the Engliſh, who ſometimes poſſeſſed, ſometimes ravaged the city, and once the caſtle was deſtroyed by the Scots themſelves, who doubted their ability to prevent its being occupied by the enemy. In proportion, however, as the independence of Scotland became eſtabliſhed, and the hoſtile incurſions of the Engliſh were ſuſpended, Edinburgh gradually roſe into conſideration. Its ſituation in the ſouth of Scotland, at a ſufficient diſtance from the Engliſh border to ſecure it from ſurpriſe, while it was near enough to be accounted a proper poſition for ſuperintending the defence of the kingdom, probably contributed to render it

a royal reſidence, and laid a foundation for its becoming the ordinary ſeat of government. The kings of Scotland dwelt in it; parliaments were frequently held there, and in every reſpect it grew toward the cloſe of the fourteenth century to be conſidered as the capital of the country. Hence the Scottiſh princes endeavoured to render themſelves popular with the citizens of Edinburgh, and beſtowed on them many privileges. Robert III. permitted all the burgeſſes to build houſes within the caſtle, probably as a place of retreat againſt hoſtile invaſion. In 1329, Robert I. granted to them the harbour and mills of Leith, but it would appear that His Majeſty was not conſidered as proprietor of the banks of the river, or of the ſhore adjoining to the harbour; as the inhabitants were under the neceſſity of purchaſing from Sir Robert Logan of Reſtalrig, the banks or waſte piece of ground extending from the walls of the houſes to the river, to be converted into wharfs or quays; with a right of making ways or roads through the lands of Reſtalrig, keeping certain ſhops, and erecting granaries within the town of Leith. James II., in 1450, empowered the corporation to fortify the city by ſurrounding it with a wall; and to defray the expence by a tax on the inhabitants. The original wall began at the foot of the north-eaſt rock of the caſtle, (where the ruins of a ſmall fortreſs are ſtill to be ſeen,) and proceeded eaſtward along the foot of the hill adjoining to the north lock, till it came nearly oppoſite to the head of the High Street. From this place to the preſent North Bridge, the city was defended by the North Loch, but from that point to the head of the Canongate the kind of defence is unknown. From the North Loch, oppoſite to the upper end of the High Street, the wall advanced ſouthward to the ſummit of the hill, where it was interſected by a gate of communication between the town and the caſtle. From this gate the wall proceeded along the ſouthern brow of the hill, pointing to the ſouth-eaſt, to the middle of what is now called the *Weſt Bow*, from the arched gate which was anciently placed there; thence it proceeded ſtill eaſtward along the face of the hill, till it reached what is now called *Gray's Cloſe*; from which it croſſed the High Street obliquely to Leith Wynd. Here a continued range of houſes, and afterwards a wall, completed the defence.

After the town had been fortified in the reign of James II., the citizens, either in conſequence of increaſing numbers, or of a paſſion which ſeems ſtill to adhere to them for having houſes without the borough, very ſpeedily erected the Cowgate, which in theſe times was accounted a magnificent ſtreet, and was inhabited by perſons of the firſt diſtinction. After the battle

battle of Flodden, the Cowgate, with the lanes adjoining, and the broad ſtreet at the weſtern extremity, called the Graſs Market, were included within the city by the new wall. This new wall is to be ſeen commencing upon the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the rock of the Caſtle; thence it deſcends obliquely acroſs the valley to the ſouth, where the gate left in it, received the appellation of the *Weſt Port*; then it aſcends to the brow of the ſouthern ridge, and turning eaſtward, it proceeds along the north ſide of the gardens of Heriot's Hoſpital and the Gray-friars' Church-yard to Briſto Port; and from Briſto Port, advancing in the ſame direction, it ſtill incloſes the buildings of Argyle Square. It has been pulled down to make way for the buildings of the New College; but it ſtill remains to the ſouth of the Royal Infirmary and the High School. At the Pleaſance, that is to ſay, at the foot of the Cowgate, it turns northward toward the eaſtern extremity of the moſt ancient wall. Thus it appears, that the wall reared after the battle of Flodden was chiefly, or rather ſolely, conſtructed for the purpoſe of defending the Graſs Market, together with the Cowgate and its adjoining lanes. At a ſubſequent period, in 1620, the magiſtrates purchaſed about ten acres of ground on the ſouth-weſt of the city, on the ſummit of the ſouthern ridge where Heriot's Hoſpital and the Charity Work-houſe now ſtand; and an additional wall was built to include this newly purchaſed territory within the limits of the city's fortifications.

As Edinburgh continued from this period till the Union to be the metropolis of Scotland, its hiſtory is the hiſtory of the kingdom, and it is not therefore intended to detail that which does not properly belong to this work.

Description. Edinburgh is ſituated in 55 °57′ of north latitude, and in 3° 14′ of longitude weſt from London. It ſtands near the centre of the northern boundary of the country, and within two miles of the town and harbour of Leith; toward which, by the extenſion of its buildings, it is rapidly approaching; and which, for this and other reaſons, may be conſidered as one of its ſuburbs.

It is extremely difficult to give by deſcription a correct idea of the city of Edinburgh, on account of the ſtrange irregularity of the territory upon which it is ſituated, and of the great diverſity of the form and aſpect of the buildings of which it now conſiſts.

The Frith of Forth, adjoining to Edinburgh on the north, is from five to ſeven miles in breadth. Eaſtward from Edinburgh and Leith is the bay of Muſſelburgh, which is the largeſt bay in this eſtuary or frith, and advances ſeveral miles ſouthward to the town or village from which it derives its

name. The harbour of Leith is ſituated in an angle, or a ſort of peninſula, formed by the ordinary line of the Frith of Forth on the north, and by Muſſelburgh bay on the eaſt. Edinburgh looks downwards upon the ſea on two ſides, and ſtands at nearly an equal diſtance from Muſſelburgh bay on the eaſt, and from the general line of the Frith of Forth on the north. From Leith, and the whole ſhore of the bay of Muſſelburgh, the country aſcends gradually and regularly weſtward toward the centre and northern parts of Edinburgh, which is from the diſtance of two to three miles. Between the ſouthern quarter of the city and Muſſelburgh bay, the mountainous tract called *Arthur's Seat* is interpoſed. At the harbour of Leith, the ſmall river called the Water of Leith falls into the ſea. To the north-weſt of Leith, along the ſhore, the country is regular and beautiful; its form is triangular, having the Frith of Forth on the north, on the ſouth the water of Leith, diverging from the Frith, and running like moſt Scottiſh rivers and even rivulets, in a deep bed with elevated banks. To the weſtward, this territory very gradually and ſlowly continues to widen, and at the ſame time to aſcend, for ſome miles, till the ſouthern part of it is croſſed by a narrow and lofty ridge in the form of a cock's comb, called *Corſtorphine Hills*, and the reſt of it begins to ſlope downwards to the river Amon, on the north-weſt.

From the Water of Leith, two miles weſtward from the harbour, the country to the ſouth rapidly aſcends to a very conſiderable height. The aſcent terminates in a horizontal ridge, which runs from eaſt to weſt, and is about three hundred feet above the level of the ſea. Along the ſummit of this ridge is ſituated what is uſually called the *New Town* of Edinburgh; which from its elevated poſition is enabled to overlook, toward the north, the Frith of Forth, with the oppoſite bold coaſt of Fife; and on this ſide the beautiful intervening territory, which is well cultivated and adorned with numerous villas.

To the ſouth of the ridge on which the New Town ſtands is a deep valley; ſouthward from which ſuddenly aſcends another ridge or long hill, upon which is placed the Old Town, or the moſt important part of the ancient city of Edinburgh. This ridge, whoſe higheſt point is on the weſt, terminates in that quarter in a precipitous and lofty rock, on which the caſtle is placed; the hill gradually deſcends to the eaſt. On the ridge, formed by its ſummit, the High Street is built, which terminates on the eaſt at the valley on which the palace of Holyrood-houſe ſtands. From the High Street, along its whole length from the caſtle to the palace, ſucceſſive narrow lanes deſcend down the ſteep ſides of the hill; thoſe on the

north terminate in the valley which divides the New from the Old Town, and which, from its anciently having been covered with water, is termed the North Loch; on the ſouth, the lanes from the High Street deſcend into a deep and narrow valley, in which is the ſtreet called the Cowgate, running parallel to the High Street, and the remainder of this low ground, toward the weſt, is occupied by the broad and ancient ſtreet called the Graſs Market. Toward the eaſt it has not been built upon.

From the Cowgate other lanes aſcend toward the ſouth, where a third long ridge, covered with buildings, runs parallel to the High Street; but which is not like it, formed into a precipitate hill, except toward the eaſt, where it approaches Saliſbury Craigs. On the ſouth it deſcends gradually into an extenſive valley, where was anciently the South Loch, or Borough Loch; but which being drained, is now called Hope Park, or the Meadow. The notion at one time entertained that the Cowgate had been covered with water, is ſhewn by Maitland to be erroneous.

The city of Edinburgh thus ſtands on three parallel ridges; two of which are of conſiderable breadth at the ſummit, and run in nearly a horizontal direction from eaſt to weſt. The central ridge, however, is ſo narrow on its ſummit, as in moſt places barely to leave room for the breadth of the High Street. This ridge alſo differs from the other two in this reſpect, that inſtead of running horizontally like them from eaſt to weſt, its weſtern point is a lofty fortified rock, ſeen by travellers at a great diſtance, while it gradually deſcends eaſtward, till at the diſtance of a mile, it ſinks into a plain.

To the ſouthward, the country gradually riſes with a great variety of ſurface, and the view is terminated by lofty mountains, which at one point are ſcarcely five miles diſtant. On the weſt the territory is more level; ſo that from Edinburgh Caſtle a fine plain is ſeen richly cultivated, and ſtretching to the diſtance of fourteen miles, where the country gradually aſcends, till it forms the elevated tract which looks down upon the courſe of the river Clyde and the city of Glaſgow.

On the eaſt, the vicinity of Edinburgh is ſo irregular and rugged, as irreſiſtibly to ſuggeſt the idea that this has once been the ſcene of ſome great natural convulſion. Three hills are chiefly worthy of notice; they conſiſt, like that on which the High Street ſtands, of rugged precipices, with an elevated ſummit toward the weſt, from which they deſcend or trail along, in a gradual manner, eaſtward. The loweſt of theſe is the Calton Hill.

The horizontal ridge of the New Town terminates ſuddenly

on the eaſt, oppoſite to the middle of the High Street. The territory on the north eaſt of the New Town conſiſts of a gradual deſcent toward Leith; and that on the ſouth-eaſt, after paſſing a ſudden chaſm, is occupied by the Calton Hill, which abruptly riſes aloft, and exhibits in that quarter a front of precipitous and broken rocks, which incroach upon the North Loch, and preſs toward the Old Town or centre of the city. On their ſummit is an obſervatory; on one ſide is the Bridewell; and on the brow of the hill is a public walk, which commands an extenſive view of a group of the moſt intereſting objects which the world can exhibit—a fertile country, a great city, a fortified caſtle, a crowded ſea-port, a royal palace, and a great extent of ocean; the whole diverſified by rugged rocks and precipices cloſe at hand, and by the lofty mountains, which border upon the weſtern Highlands, which form the diſtant horizon.

The ridge to the ſouthward of the High Street, or Old Town of Edinburgh, terminates, like that on the north, in a ſudden chaſm on the eaſt, beyond which a lofty precipice aſcends. Here, however, every thing is on a grander ſcale; the rocks are more lofty, and are ſucceeded by others, which form a ſingular tract of mountainous territory in the vicinity of the palace. The chief diviſions of theſe hills are called *Saliſbury Craigs* and Arthur's Seat. The former, a ſemi-circular precipice of great height and extent, is the moſt weſterly, and is ſuppoſed to derive its name from an Earl of Saliſbury who accompanied Edward III. in an expedition.

Arthur's Seat, to the eaſtward of Saliſbury Craigs, conſiſts of two extenſive hills; one of which riſing into a lofty peak overlooks the ſurrounding country, and is 819 feet above the low water-mark at Leith.

The three ridges on which the city is built are connected by bridges built acroſs the low grounds which divide the whole town, or central ridge, from the New Town on the north, and from the ſouthern diſtrict on the oppoſite ſide.

In conſequence of its being divided in the way now mentioned, as it were into three diſtinct cities, built upon ſeparate parallel eminences, divided from each other by intervening vallies, there is no city of its extent which is leſs perplexing to a ſtranger, or where he is leſs likely to loſe his way, than Edinburgh. After the ſlighteſt inſpection, he cannot poſſibly miſtake one diviſion for another; becauſe the Old Town, the New Town, and the ſouthern diſtrict, are each of moderate extent, and have no reſemblance to each other.

The weſtern part of the central diviſion of Edinburgh riſes aloft, and overlooks the whole city. At the ſummit or precipitous

pitous extremity the caſtle is ſituated, conſiſting of an area of about ſix Engliſh acres. Before the invention of artillery it muſt have appeared impregnable; on the north, the weſt, and the ſouth it appears inacceſſible, being on a rock of 300 feet in height, which is at many places abſolutely perpendicular. On the eaſt, the only quarter from which it is acceſſible, it is ſeparated from the buildings of the city by a kind of glacis or ſpace of about 350 feet in length and 300 in breadth, called the Caſtle Hill, which alſo commands a proſpect of the city and its whole environs, with the ſea, and the oppoſite coaſt of Fife. At the weſtern termination of the Caſtle Hill is the outer barrier of the caſtle, beyond which is a dry ditch, with a draw-bridge and gate; the whole commanded by a half moon mounted with twelve and eighteen pounders. Within the gate is a guard room; beyond which, on a road winding upward, toward the north, are two gateways, the firſt of which is very ſtrong, and has two port-culliſes. Beyond the inner gateway is a battery, mounted with braſs guns; near which are ſtore-houſes for gun-carriages and other implements of artillery. On the north is a grand ſtore-room and arſenal, which, together with the other magazines in the fort, are capable of containing 30,000 ſtand of arms. In addition to thoſe already mentioned, are ſome other batteries at different points of the circumference of the rampart or wall by which the brow of the rock is encircled; but the fortifications correſpond with none of the rules of art, being built according to the irregular form of the precipice on which they ſtand. So that to this day the chief ſtrength of the caſtle may be conſidered as conſiſting in its height and inacceſſible ſituation. The higheſt part of the caſtle, which is towards the ſouth-eaſt, conſiſts of a number of houſes in the form of a ſquare, affording a parade for exerciſe. The buildings are chiefly laid out in barracks for the officers.

High Street. At the eaſtern extremity of the glacis of the caſtle the *High Street* of Edinburgh begins, and continues without interruption downward along the ridge of the hill to the palace of Holyrood-houſe. The upper part of this ſtreet is about 140 feet above the level of the North Loch, and almoſt 180 feet above Holyrood-houſe. The ſtreet from the caſtle-gate to the palace-gate is 5,570 feet. The deſcent is regular, and it runs all the way nearly in a right line; at the ſame time the bendings are ſufficient to interrupt the view from one end to the other; and the view is farther broken by ſome edifices which are ſtill ſuffered to encroach upon the ſtreet. The High Street receives various appellations to diſtinguiſh different parts of it; near the caſtle it is termed the *Caſtle Hill*; ſome-

ſomewhat lower down, the *Lawn Market*, from a branch of trade formerly carried on there; at the lower end of the Lawn Market, where ſtands the ancient Epiſcopal Cathedral, or Church of St. Giles, the ſtreet for a conſiderable diſtance is called, by way of diſtinction, the *High Street;* this being the moſt frequented and public part of it; further down the hill, at a place where the city wall anciently croſſed it, the appellation of the *Canongate* is given, and continues downward to the palace. From the upper end of the Lawn Market a ſtreet deſcends the hill ſouthward, in a winding direction, to the Graſs Market and Cowgate. In ancient times, one of the gates of the city was in the middle of this ſtreet. The gate was covered by a ſtone arch, termed in the Scottiſh dialect a *bow;* and hence the ſtreet receives the appellation to this day of the *Weſt Bow.*

From the middle of the Lawn Market toward the north, a communication with the New Town has of late years been opened, by means of a great mound of earth, which croſſes the North Loch. At the lower end of the Lawn Market, the ſtreet is embarraſſed by an old priſon, and ſome houſes called *Lucken-booths*, which occupy the middle of it: but theſe are beginning to be removed. Adjoining to them is a ſmall ſquare, called the *Parliament-cloſe*, to the ſouth of the ſtreet. The ſides of the ſquare are formed by the cathedral of St. Giles on the north; on the ſouth and weſt, partly by the parliament-houſe. The remainder of the ſquare, which is not extenſive, is completed by lofty private buildings of hewn ſtone, and the centre is adorned with a beautiful equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. A little below the Cathedral of St. Giles, *the Croſs* of Edinburgh anciently ſtood; and the ſpot, which is marked by a ſort of radiated pavement, ſtill receives the appellation of the Croſs. Here the Scottiſh ſtatutes were anciently proclaimed; and here royal and other public proclamations are ſtill made. Here alſo the principal citizens in former times were accuſtomed to aſſemble every day betwixt the hours of one and two in the afternoon; and for their entertainment a ſet of bells is placed in the ſteeple of the adjoining cathedral, upon which, at that hour, a perſon, who receives a ſalary from the magiſtrates, daily plays, in the manner of a harpſichord, a variety of tunes. At no great diſtance below the proper croſs of Edinburgh, are two great bridges of communication which connect the Old Town with the northern and ſouthern diſtricts. Theſe bridges form a moſt beautiful and elegant ſtreet. The central hill is alſo croſſed ſomewhat lower by another ſtreet, which on the ſouth receives the appellation of *St. Mary's Wynd;* and on the north, of *Leith Wynd.*

The

The *Cowgate* reſembles the High Street only in the loftineſs of its buildings, being too narrow to admit of a ſide pavement for foot paſſengers, and being now rapidly falling into decay, in conſequence of the extenſion of the city into more favourable ſituations.

From the Caſtle Hill to the palace, the whole ſpace is occupied, or rather moſt inconceivably crowded, with buildings in rows down each ſide of the hill. Theſe buildings are piled up to a great height; and as the lanes (or, as they are called, *cloſes*,) between the rows are ſeldom more than from ſix to ten feet in breadth, the lower ſtories are neceſſarily extremely dark. The lanes, however, have ſome variety. Thoſe which admit a carriage to paſs through them are uſually termed *wynds*, and in ſome places ſmall ſquares are formed, which are uſually termed *courts*; but none of theſe are very ancient.

The communications between the High Street of Edinburgh, or the central ridge of that city, and the northern and ſouthern diſtricts, are themſelves no ſmall curioſities. The moſt remarkable conſiſts of the two bridges, which form one continued ſtreet, croſſing the High Street, and at right angles with it. In 1763 the *North Bridge* was begun by William Mylne the architect, brother to him who built Blackfriar's Bridge. It conſiſts of three great arches with ſeveral ſmall ones at each end, of the following dimenſions: width of the three great arches, 72 feet each; breadth or thickneſs of the piers, 13½ each; width of the ſmall arches, 20 feet each; total length of the piers and arches, 310 feet; length of the bridge from the High Street to Prince's Street, 1,125 feet; height of the great arches from the top of the parapet to the baſe, 68; breadth of the bridge within wall over the arches, 40; breadth at each end, 50 feet.

The *South Bridge*, thrown over the Cowgate, is in the ſame line with the North Bridge; but not ſo high. The foundation ſtone was laid on the 1ſt Auguſt 1785. The bridge, conſiſting of 22 arches, was built, the old houſes removed, the elegant new buildings on both ſides finiſhed, the ſhops occupied, and the ſtreet opened for carriages, in March 1788, an operation of wonderful celerity, which proved a ſource not of expence but of profit to the public.

Another communication between the centre of the city and the New Town of Edinburgh has of late years been opened, by means of a mound of earth laid from the Lawn Market acroſs the North Loch. This mound was made paſſable for carriages in three years. It is above 800 feet in length.

The ſouthern diſtrict of Edinburgh is a mixture of ancient and modern buildings, in which, upon the whole, the latter predominate.

predominate. The weſtern part of this diſtrict is occupied by various hoſpitals; and beyond theſe is a very mean ſuburb called *Portſburgh*, from its vicinity to the weſtern port or gate of the city.

The northern diſtrict of Edinburgh, called the New Town, may well be conſidered as the pride of Scotland. It is excelled in regularity, elegance, and magnificence, by no city in the world. It may be regarded as conſiſting of two parts; the New Town as originally deſigned in 1767, and nearly completed; and the additional buildings erected or erecting to the eaſt and the north of it.

The city of Edinburgh is nearly ſeven miles in circumference, and upon the whole, an object of no ſmall curioſity. The durable materials of its buildings, together with the rapid improvements which have taken place ſince the commencement of the reign of George the Third, enable it to exhibit at once the dwellings and the accommodation required by the ſame people in very different ſtates of ſociety, and in remote periods of their hiſtory. The houſes may ſtill be ſeen in which the proudeſt and wealthieſt of the Scottiſh nobles and gentry formerly found adequate accommodation for a city reſidence, but which are now occupied by ordinary mechanics and tradeſmen; while in their immediate vicinity, and in full view, a city of palaces has been reared, which marks ſtrongly by contraſt the altered ſtate of this part of the Britiſh empire.

In conſequence of the extreme irregularity of the ſoil, the vicinity of the Frith of Forth, and the fertility of the adjoining country, it is perhaps impoſſible to find in the world a ſituation preſenting ſuch a boundleſs variety as occurs in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, of beautiful, magnificent, and ſingular ſcenery. At every ſtep the proſpect alters, objects already ſeen appear in different points of view, or new ones aſcend into notice. In particular, the views from the weſtern part of Queen Street, from the Calton Hill, from the Caſtle Hill, from Saliſbury Craigs, from a variety of ſituations on the adjoining hills, and more eſpecially from the towering ſummit of Arthur's Seat, are inconceivably magnificent.

Edinburgh is well ſupplied with excellent water, and at an eaſy expence.

Leith. Leith, which is the port of Edinburgh, ſtands at the mouth of a ſmall river of that name, and appears to have been anciently called *Inverleith*. The harbour is formed by the conflux of the Water of Leith with the ſea. The depth at the mouth of the harbour is at neap tides about nine, but in high ſpring tides about ſixteen feet. It is entirely a tide harbour; the water in the river being too trifling to aſſiſt the navigation.

navigation. It has wet and dry docks, and other conveniences for ſhip-building. Leith conſiſts of two pariſhes, called *South* and *North Leith*. In the former the greateſt part of the town is included; and alſo a conſiderable country diſtrict extending ſouthward towards Arthur's Seat, and including the ancient pariſh of Reſtalrig. South Leith contains in its ſuburbs many fine houſes belonging to wealthy merchants, and one or two good ſtreets; but in general the town is laid out in an irregular form, with narrow ſtreets and lanes, which are uſually extremely dirty. Leith is alſo ill ſupplied with freſh water; that in the wells is neither good nor abundant; and the inhabitants have never adopted any rational plan for ſupplying themſelves from a diſtance. They once levied money by a voluntary contribution, to bring water from a lake in the pariſh, called *Lochend*, which is about 500 yards in length, and half as much in breadth, but the water was never good, and is continually becoming worſe.

MUNICIPALITY. By its municipal conſtitution, Edinburgh is divided into ſeveral diſtricts. Of theſe, the ancient royal borough, or royalty as it is called, is the head. It conſiſts of the High Street to the head of the Canongate, of the Cowgate and Graſs Market, with their adjoining lanes. The magiſtrates of this ancient diſtrict, in the character of barons, or lords of all the reſt, appoint inferior magiſtrates, who govern the Canongate, the ſuburbs of Portſburgh and the Potter Row, and the Town of Leith, under the appellation of *Baron Bailies*. Edinburgh, ſtrictly ſo called, that is the ancient royal borough, has a municipal government, conſiſting of what is called the *town council*, compoſed of thirty-three perſons; twenty-five conſtitute the *ordinary council*, which alone manages many of the city's affairs, and the remaining eight are *extraordinary members*. Theſe magiſtrates are merchants and tradeſmen. In many reſpects the magiſtrates of boroughs are ſtill conſidered as immediate dependants or ſervants of the crown, particularly in the forms by which property in boroughs is transferred. A burgeſs ſelling his houſe ſurrenders it to the magiſtrates, as the king's commiſſioners or bailies, and they deliver the poſſeſſion to the purchaſer. It was probably under ſome notion of this ſort of their immediately repreſenting the king, that the town council of Scottiſh boroughs aſſumed the privilege, which they ſtill exerciſe, of granting charters, ſtyled *ſeals of cauſe*, to particular claſſes of tradeſmen, called *crafts*, or *companies of arts*, conſtituting them into ſeparate incorporations. Theſe incorporated trades gradually grew into importance in the ſeveral boroughs; and at laſt a diſtinction came to be made between them and the merchants properly ſo called, who merely buy

buy and ſell, but do not exerciſe any branch of art or manufacture. The incorporations created by the town councils appear at laſt to have inſiſted upon being allowed to ſit, by their repreſentatives, in the body which beſtowed upon them a political exiſtence. The municipal conſtitution of Edinburgh, which was not ultimately fixed without many ſtruggles, is ſo contrived as to preſerve a ſort of balance between the merchants or perſons who ſell commodities, and the incorporated tradeſmen.

Merchant Company. The merchants of Edinburgh were erected into a body corporate, on the 19th of October 1681; when they received a royal charter, under the name of the company of merchants in the city of Edinburgh. The charter authorizes them to elect a preſident, who is called the *Maſter of the Merchant Company*, together with twelve aſſiſtants, a treaſurer, clerk, and officers. The company were empowered to purchaſe lands, to make bye-laws, to levy a tax upon apprentices and members, chiefly for the ſupport of their poor.

Fourteen Incorporations. The incorporated trades are fourteen in number; and each trade elects, under certain reſtrictions, a preſident, called its *Deacon*, by whom it is repreſented in the town council. They take precedence of each other in the order in which they are enumerated.

1ſt. *The Royal College of Surgeons*, erected into a corporation the 1ſt July 1505. In 1772, the ſurgeons and barbers were ſeparated in all reſpects, except that the barbers are ſtill obliged to enter their apprentices in the regiſter kept by the ſurgeons; and by a charter dated 14th March 1778, this incorporation was erected anew, under the name of the *Royal College of Surgeons of the city of Edinburgh.*

2d. *The Goldſmiths*, originally incorporated with the hammermen. The period of their ſeparation is uncertain; but it was before 1581, when a charter from the town council preſcribed to them minute and judicious regulations concerning their apprentices, and work.

3d. *The Skinners* were erected into a corporation in or before the year 1586.

4th. *The Farriers* were alſo incorporated; but at what time is unknown.

5th. *The Hammermen* entered into a corporation the 2d May 1483. This community at that time comprehended the following crafts: blackſmiths, goldſmiths, ſaddlers, cutlers, and armourers. There are now comprehended in it the blackſmiths, cutlers, ſaddlers, lockſmiths, armourers, pewterers, ſheerſmiths, watch-makers, goldſmiths, hook-makers, pin-makers, belt-makers, founders, braziers, copper-ſmiths, and white-iron-ſmiths.

6th *and*

6th *and* 7th. *The Wrights and Maſons* form a ſingle incorporation; but they have a double repreſentation in the town council, one deacon being annually choſen to repreſent each. They were incorporated the 15th October 1475, and are commonly known by the name of *the United Incorporation of Mary's Chapel.* The following crafts are comprized in this deſcription: wrights, maſons, bowyers, glaziers, plumbers, upholſterers, painters, ſlaters, ſievewrights, and coopers.

8th. *The Tailors* poſſeſs ſeveral charters ratified by the Scottiſh kings; but the time of their firſt incorporation is unknown.

9th. *The Bakers* poſſeſs a charter in 1522, which mentions their having been in poſſeſſion of previous charters, then loſt.

10th. *The Fleſhers* are a very old incorporation; but the time of their inſtitution is unknown. It appears, however, that as early as 1488 regulations for them were eſtabliſhed by the magiſtrates. At that time they appear to have been dealers in fiſh as well as fleſh. They reject the appellation of *butchers*, accounting it harſh and murderous.

11th. *The Cordiners or Shoemakers* are among the oldeſt incorporations in Edinburgh. Maitland places their inſtitution in 1449.

12th. *The Weavers* were incorporated by a charter, dated 31ſt January 1475.

13th. *The Waukers* were originally clothiers. Their employment is now circumſcribed to the milling and ſcowering of cloth. They were incorporated on the 20th Auguſt 1500. The *Hatters* were united with them in 1672.

14th. *The Bonnet Makers* were incorporated in 1530. By the faſhion of wearing hats their buſineſs has been ruined. *The Dyers* were united with this incorporation in 1640.

The Candle Makers were incorporated 5th September 1517; but they have no repreſentation in the council. It will alſo be obſerved that ſeveral new trades remain neceſſarily unrepreſented in the council, as bookſellers, printers, engravers, grocers, vintners, and others.

The town council is elected in the following manner: firſt the fourteen incorporations meet by themſelves; and each incorporation makes out a liſt (or *leet*, as it is called) of ſix perſons, out of which the deacon of each incorporation muſt be choſen. Theſe fourteen liſts or *leets* are laid before the ordinary council of twenty-four, who ſtrike off three names from the ſix, and return the liſts ſo abridged to the different incorporations; and this is termed *ſhortening the leets.* Out of the leets thus ſhortened the incorporations chooſe their reſpective deacons, and preſent them to the ordinary council, who out of the fourteen deacons chooſe ſix to be members

of

of their body, upon which the ſix council deacons of the former year retire. The next ſtep in the election is the choice of three merchants' and two trades' counſellors. This is performed by the ordinary council, but the merchants' and trades' counſellors of the former year do not, upon the choice of their ſucceſſors, immediately withdraw, but vote along with them in the remaining ſteps of the election. There are then thirty members who proceed to make up *leets*, out of which the lord provoſt, dean of guild, treaſurer, and bailies muſt be choſen. For this purpoſe a liſt is formed of three perſons, one of whom muſt be elected provoſt. A ſimilar liſt for the election of dean of guild; a third, for treaſurer; and a liſt of twelve, out of which the four bailies muſt be choſen, all of whom in the *leets* for provoſt and magiſtrates muſt be merchants. The *leets* being made up, theſe thirty being joined by them, the eight *extraordinary* council deacons, elect the magiſtrates for the enſuing year. As the new part of the council, ordinary and extraordinary, is now filled up to this extent,

6 Council deacons,
3 Merchant councellors,
2 Trades' counſellors, and,
8 Extraordinary council deacons,

19 in all,

fourteen more members are required to form the full council of thirty-three. Of theſe the following eleven are choſen on the firſt Tueſday after Michaelmas (29th of September): the lord provoſt, either a new perſon elected into that office, or the preſent one continued; four bailies; four old bailies, their offices borne by the four bailies of the former year of courſe; the dean of guild, either a new perſon elected, or the preſent one of courſe. Hence, if the three offices of lord provoſt, dean of guild, and treaſurer, ſhould all happen to be ſupplied with new perſons, inſtead of eleven vacancies in the council being filled up on the day already mentioned, there would be fourteen, which would render the council complete; for the perſons who were formerly provoſt, dean of guild, and treaſurer, would, for the enſuing year, become old provoſt, old dean of guild, and old treaſurer; but if no new perſons are elected to be provoſt, &c. then there are none to fill up the places of old provoſt, &c. of courſe; which therefore is done, either at the next or ſome ſubſequent meeting, by the ordinary council of twenty-three or twenty-four. The number is therefore various; becauſe it ſometimes happens that a new provoſt,

provoſt, dean of guild, and treaſurer, do not come into council in the ſame year, but a new provoſt and dean of guild the one year, and new treaſurer the other, alternately.

MAGISTRACY. The magiſtracy of Edinburgh formerly poſſeſſed or aſſumed very high powers, ſetting themſelves frequently above the crown, and affecting an independence of the legiſlature. Modern good ſenſe has reduced theſe extravagant pretenſions, but they ſtill poſſeſs very ample powers in the adminiſtration of juſtice.

Lord Provoſt. The office of lord provoſt of Edinburgh has at times been held by men of very great reſpectability, whoſe activity and public ſpirit have much contributed to the improvement of the city. The provoſt is ſtyled *right honourable*, and is high ſheriff, coroner, and admiral, within the city and liberties, and the town, harbour, and road of Leith. He has juriſdiction in matters of life and death. He was an officer of the Scottiſh parliament, is preſident of the convention of royal boroughs, colonel of the trained bands, commander of the city guard and of Edinburgh jail. Within the city he has the precedency of all the nobility and great officers of ſtate upon all occaſions, walking on the right hand of the king, or of his majeſty's commiſſioner, and has the privilege of having a ſword and mace borne before him. The magiſtrates are juſtices of the peace and ſheriffs depute; and the town council are patrons of the univerſity, and electors of the city's repreſentatives in parliament. They have the right of preſenting to all offices of truſt, honour, or emolument, depending upon the city.

The lord provoſt and magiſtrates have one or other of them an extenſive civil, and a ſtill more ample criminal juriſdiction. The courts held by them are, the criminal court, the bailie court, the ten merk court, and the dean of guild court.

The powers of the lord provoſt of Edinburgh and of the bailies, who are conſidered as his deputies as judges of crime, are extremely extenſive, though of late they have not been frequently exerted. Inſtances exiſt on record of trials before them for murder, and all inferior crimes, ſuch as houſe-breaking, theft, forgery, uſing falſe keys, lifting dead bodies from the grave, celebrating irregular marriages, publiſhing defamatory libels, &c.

Bailie Court. What is called the bailie court is held by one of the four bailies, who ſit for three months alternately. In this court actions for debt are commenced to any amount againſt a party who is inhabitant of Edinburgh. This court tries frauds againſt the city's revenues, and has a power of valuing

and ſelling ruinous houſes within the borough, that they may be rebuilt in caſe the proprietors ſhall refuſe to rebuild them.

Ten Merk Court. What is called the ten merk court is held weekly by one of the bailies. Its name expreſſes the extent of its juriſdiction; the ſum of 11*s.* 1⅓*d.* being the highest amount for which any action can be brought before it, excepting actions for ſervants' wages.

Dean of Guild Court. The dean of guild court regulates buildings within the borough, and is very neceſſary in Edinburgh; where the height of the houſes, and the manner in which they are crowded together, occaſions many diſputes. The buſineſs of the lord dean of guild, as he is called, is to take care that the buildings within the city be erected according to law; that encroachments be not made upon the public ſtreets; alſo, to judge between adjoining proprietors concerning the limits of their reſpective properties; to conſider the ſtate of buildings, whether they be in ſuch condition as to threaten damage to thoſe dwelling in them, or to the neighbourhood; and to grant warrant for repairing, pulling down, or rebuilding them, according to the circumſtances of the caſe.

The dean of guild has a council of five appointed to him, whoſe opinions he conſults; but if it be a matter of much importance, as the ordering a houſe to be pulled down as ruinous, he does not proceed but upon the verdict of a jury of fifteen men, half merchants, half tradeſmen, who are ſpecially called for the purpoſe.

Town's Aſſeſſors. As the bailies and dean of guild of Edinburgh, who act as judges in thoſe courts, cannot be ſuppoſed qualified, from their education or habits, to decide upon the elaborate written pleadings which are frequently laid before them in queſtions of importance, the town council allows a ſalary to four ordinary aſſeſſors, who are members of the faculty of advocates; and theſe gentlemen determine all ſuch cauſes. The magiſtrate only annexes his ſubſcription, to give authority to the deciſion. His majeſty's advocate and ſolicitor are at times conſulted as extraordinary aſſeſſors.

Baron Bailies. As the town council of Edinburgh are ſuperiors of the Canongate, Portſburgh, and Leith, they appoint certain of their own number bailies of theſe *boroughs of barony.* They are called the *Baron Bailie of the Canongate, Portſburgh,* &c. The one appointed for Leith is called the *Admiral of Leith;* becauſe within that diſtrict he has a juriſdiction in maritime affairs. The baron bailies appoint one or two inhabitants of the reſpective baronies their ſubſtitutes. Theſe are called *reſident bailies.* They hold courts in abſence of the baron

baron bailies for diſcuſſing civil cauſes of ſmall moment, and deciding on petty offences.

Incorporations of Leith. Mary of Lorraine, queen-dowager and regent of Scotland, divided and incoporated the inhabitants of Leith in four claſſes. The *mariners* conſiſting of ſhip maſters and ſailors; the *malſters*, of malt-makers and brewers; the *trades*, being coopers, ſmiths, bakers, wrights, &c.; and the fourth of *merchants* and ſhop-keepers. Of theſe incorporations, that of the mariners now makes the principal figure, in conſequence of their poſſeſſing conſiderable funds, and of their occaſional interference in the regulation of affairs relative to navigation. Oppoſite to South Leith church there is a large houſe belonging to them, called the *Trinity Houſe*, from its having anciently been an hoſpital dedicated to the Holy Trinity. Some of their poor were formerly kept here; but they have adopted the more judicious mode of ſupporting them as out penſioners.

Prisons. There are in Edinburgh two jails called *Tolbooths*, and a Bridewell.

The building called *the Tolbooth* ſtands in the middle of the High Street, at the weſtern extremity of that range of buildings (moſt part of which has been lately pulled down) called the Luckenbooths. It was erected by the citizens of Edinburgh in 1561, not merely for the purpoſes of a priſon, but likewiſe for the accommodation of the parliament and courts of juſtice, but they being removed, it has been kept ſolely as a priſon, ever ſince 1640. The laſt parliament at which royalty preſided was held in the Tolbooth, immediately after the coronation of Charles I. in July 1633. The external appearance of the building is mean; nor do the accommodations within compenſate for the want of elegance without. The ground floor of the Tolbooth is partly laid out in ſhops, and partly occupied by the ſoldiers of the town guard.

Canongate Tolbooth. The Canongate Tolbooth, or priſon, appears from an inſcription on the front, to have been either built or repaired in the reign of James VI. It comprizes a court-room for the baron bailie of the diſtrict, and is ſurmounted with a ſpire and clock. Beſides this there are court houſes and priſons in the other ſuburbs; but none of theſe deſerve particular notice.

Bridewell. The Edinburgh Bridewell was founded the 30th of November 1791, before which period there was an inſtitution of a ſimilar kind, under the name of the *Houſe of Correction*, for the reception of ſtrolling poor, vagrants, and proſtitutes. This eſtabliſhment was projected in 1632; and being the firſt of the kind in the town, a perſon was brought

from England to ſuperintend its management. This in courſe of time being found on a ſcale too ſmall for the increaſed population of the city, a new bridewell was projected, and the preſent building reared; it ſtands on the high hill in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, is of ſemicircular form, and conſiſts of five floors. It was finiſhed in 1796, and the expence of its erection defrayed by an aſſeſſment on the inhabitants of the city and county, aided by a grant of 5000*l.* from government.

Revenue. The proper *revenue* of the city of Edinburgh conſiſts, firſt, of certain duties or taxations; ſuch as the impoſt on wines, the ſhore dues at Leith, the duties collected at the fleſh, poultry, fiſh, meal, and other markets; the annuity, or miniſter's ſtipend; ſecondly, of landed property, ſuch as Leith and Bruntsfield Links, Calton Hill, and Meadows, with ſome houſes and ſhops in Edinburgh and Leith; thirdly, of their feu duties, as thoſe of the mills on the Water of Leith, of the houſes in the New Town, &c.; and, fourthly, of what is paid for private water-pipes. Beſide theſe there is a ſtatutory revenue ariſing from a tax of two pence Scots on every Scots pint of ale or beer brewed within the city, or imported into it. The debts of the city are very great.

Royal Exchange. The Exchange is on the north ſide of the High Street, adjoining to the ſpot where the Croſs formerly ſtood. It was begun in 1754, and finiſhed in 1761. It is an elegant building of a ſquare figure, with a court in the centre. The principal part forms the north ſide of the ſquare, and extends from eaſt to weſt 111 feet, by 51 feet broad. Pillars and arches, ſupporting a platform, run along the ſouth front, which faces the ſquare, and forms a piazza. In the centre, four Corinthian pillars, whoſe baſes reſt upon the platform, ſupport a pediment, on which the arms of the city are engraved. This building is to the ſouth, or main front, 60; but, by reaſon of the extreme inequality of the ſurface, to the northern 100 feet high. The extreme dimenſions of the whole building amount to 182 feet ſouth and north, by 111 feet eaſt and weſt upon the north front, but upon the ſouth front 147 feet. This fine building has never anſwered the purpoſe for which it was intended. Inſtead of aſſembling here for buſineſs, the merchants and others ſtill continue to meet in the open ſtreet, where the Croſs formerly was, and where they remain, like their anceſtors, expoſed to all the ſeverity of the weather.

CHURCHES.

ALL that is called the ancient royal borough, or royalty of the city of Edinburgh, is conſidered as one pariſh, to which the New Town has been annexed; and it bears the name of *St. Giles*; but this does not include the Canongate, which forms a ſeparate pariſh; nor is the greater part of the ſouthern diſtrict comprized, nor the buildings in the New Town beyond the regular parallelogram or plan adopted by the public for that part of the city. Theſe belong to the pariſh of St. Cuthbert, which includes a conſiderable part of the adjoining country. The town of Leith has alſo a diſtinct eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, and is divided into two pariſhes, called the *North* and the *South*. In Edinburgh and Leith, the regular eſtabliſhed clergy of the Preſbyterian church, who receive ſalaries from the public, are twenty-four in number. Of theſe, three belong to Leith, two to the Canongate, and two to St. Cuthbert's, commonly called the *Weſt Kirk*. The remainder are allotted to the new and old diviſions of the royal borough of Edinburgh, the magiſtrates of which are their patrons. Beſide theſe, however, there are ſome other churches connected with the eſtabliſhment, called *Chapels of Eaſe*; the incumbents of which are ſupported chiefly, like diſſenters, out of the revenue collected from the rents of the ſeats. One of theſe chapels of eaſe is in the pariſh of St. Cuthbert, two in the Canongate, one in the ancient part of the city of Edinburgh, and one in Leith, beſides a chapel in which the Gaelic or Erſe language is preached, for the accommodation of the lower claſs of perſons who reſort to Edinburgh from the Highlands, and who act in great numbers in the capacity of chairmen, porters, and ſervants.

St. Giles. The church of St. Giles, the ancient cathedral, is ſituated in the High Street, and forms the northern boundary of the Parliament Square or Cloſe. It meaſures in length from eaſt to weſt, over the walls, 206 feet; at the weſt end it is 110 feet broad, and in the middle 129, but at the eaſt only 76. It is a beautiful Gothic building, adorned with a lofty ſquare tower, the top of which is encircled with open figured ſtone work, reſembling the ornaments that enrich the circle of an imperial crown. From each ſide and each corner of the tower riſes a ſlip of ſtone work, which meeting in the top with that which ſprings from the oppoſite ſides, forms four arches, interſecting each other, and completing the figure of an imperial crown, the top of which terminates in a pointed ſpire. The church is built on a very elevated ſituation, and the

height of the ſpire is 161 feet. At what time this fabric was reared does not appear, but it was long in great eſtimation as a religious eſtabliſhment, and about forty altars were founded in it. In 1466 James III. erected it into a collegiate church; of which the chapter conſiſted of a provoſt, curate, 16 prebendaries, a miniſter of the choir, four choriſters, a ſacriſtan, and beadle. At the Reformation, the ſacred utenſils belonging to this church were ſeized and ſold by the magiſtrates of Edinburgh. The money was applied, after repairing the church, to augment the ordinary funds of the incorporation. The church itſelf was divided by partition walls; and its principal apartments are ſtill uſed as four ſeparate churches, under the appellation of the *New Church*, the *Old Church*, the *Tolbooth Church*, which is adjoining to the priſon, and *Haddow's Hole Church*, ſo called from a gentleman of that name having been confined in it. To each of theſe churches two clergymen are allotted. The New Church is formed out of the choir of St. Giles. It is conſidered as the principal church of the city; it has been fitted up in a new and elegant manner, with a gallery which goes along two ſides and one of its ends. In this gallery is a ſeat or ornamented throne for the king, which is uſed by the commiſſioner to the general aſſembly of the church. In the ſame gallery are ſeats for the magiſtrates of Edinburgh, and for the judges of the two courts of Seſſion and Exchequer, who attend divine ſervice during the time of Seſſion, in their robes. The pulpit and the front of the gallery are covered with crimſon velvet fringed with gold. The leſſer apartments of this church are allotted to other purpoſes.

College Church. The College Church, the ſecond in point of antiquity in Edinburgh, is a fine ſpecimen of Gothic architecture, but the plan has never been completed, the choir, the central tower, and the croſs alone have been erected. It was founded by Mary of Gueldres, queen of James II. in 1462, and was a collegiate church, conſiſting of a provoſt, eight prebendaries, and two choriſters. The body of the foundreſs is interred in the north aiſle of the church. The remaining churches have been built ſince the Reformation

Greyfriars. The Old and New Greyfriars form one building on the ground of a monaſtery in the midſt of the moſt public cemetery of Edinburgh.

Tron Church. This church, which derived its name from its vicinity to the tron or public beam uſed in former times for weighing merchandize, was opened in 1647; and is now a very conſpicuous object, ſtanding at the point in the centre of

of the town, where the two bridges communicate with each other.

Lady Eſther's Church. Lady Eſther's Church a building of moderate extent, ſituated in the ſouthern diſtrict, near the Infirmary and the High School, owes its origin to a donation by dame Margaret Ker Lady Eſther, in 1674.

Canongate Church. Anciently the abbey church of Holy-rood-houſe, was the pariſh church of the Canongate; but James VII. during his reſidence in Scotland, having ordered the church to be ſet apart as a chapel royal, the inhabitants of the Canongate were under the neceſſity of building the preſent church for themſelves, which is a large building conſtructed in the ancient faſhion, in the form of a croſs, and contains ſeats appropriated to ſeveral of the nobility, who once reſided in the Canongate.

St. Cuthbert's Church. The church of St. Cuthbert is chiefly remarkable within, as a large building well adapted to contain a very numerous congregation, and without as a coarſe ſtone building, which has recently been ornamented with a ſpire.

St. Andrew's Church. St. Andrew's is a handſome oval building, ſituated on the north ſide of George Street, in the New Town.

St. George's Church. The laſt founded church in Edinburgh is called St. George's; an elegant building in the New Town, which was opened for divine ſervice in 1814.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

Heriot's Hoſpital. This magnificent fabric, eſteemed the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen of Gothic architecture left by Inigo Jones, is ſituated in the ſouthern diſtrict, on the ſummit of the ridge, and conſiſts of a ſquare, whoſe ſide meaſures 162 feet on the outſide, leaving an open court 94 feet each way in the middle. The north and eaſt ſides of this court are decorated with piazzas, and a walk 6¼ feet in breadth. This court is paved with ſquare ſtones, and has a well in the middle. Over the gateway is a ſpire and a clock; and the upper corners of the building on the outſide are ornamented with turrets. The windows are 200, ſo ornamented that no one is ſimilar to another; a circumſtance which to perſons of taſte conſtitutes the chief deformity of the building. The chapel, which is on the ſouth ſide of the building, is extremely beautiful. This hoſpital was founded by George Heriot, a goldſmith in Edinburgh, who from ſmall beginnings realized a ſum of 50,000*l*, which at the time when he died (1624) was

conſidered a very large fortune. After providing largely for two illegitimate daughters, and giving legacies to his relations and friends, he bequeathed the reſidue of his property, 23,625*l.*, to the town council and miniſters of Edinburgh, for building and endowing an hoſpital for the maintenance and education of indigent children, the ſons of burgeſſes of that city. The number of boys maintained in it has been various at different periods; at one time they amounted to 140, and are ſtill above 100. They are inſtructed in reading and writing, Engliſh, and arithmetic, and on being apprenticed each boy is allowed 25*l.* and a farther donation of 5*l.* at the end of his ſervice.

Watſon's Hoſpital. Watſon's Hoſpital is inſtituted for the education of boys, the children or grandchildren of decayed merchants in Edinburgh. It is a handſome building, ſituated in the neighbourhood of Heriot's Hoſpital, and contains about 60 boys, who are taught by the beſt maſters, Engliſh, Latin, Greek, and French, ſo as to be prepared for the univerſity. They are alſo taught writing, arithmetic, and book-keeping, ſo as to be qualified for the counting-houſe; together with geography, with the uſe of the globes and maps. Such of them as diſcover an unuſual capacity for literature are allowed 10*l.* per annum for five years after they leave the hoſpital, to aſſiſt them in proſecuting their ſtudies at the univerſity. Others, at fifteen or ſixteen years of age, are bound apprentices to different employments; and 20*l.* are allowed as an apprentice fee. On producing certificates of their good behaviour, when twenty-five years of age, they receive a bounty of 50*l.* The founder, George Watſon, was the ſon of a merchant in Edinburgh, who left his affairs in embarraſſment. After acting in various ſituations, he was appointed accountant to the Bank of Scotland, and afterwards treaſurer to the Merchants' Maiden Hoſpital; and to the Society for Propagating Chriſtian Knowlege. He died in 1723, bequeathing his property, 12,000*l.*, to the Merchant Company of Edinburgh to build this hoſpital.

Charity Workhouſes. The charity workhouſe of Edinburgh is a municipal inſtitution intended for the ſupport of the aged and infirm poor. It ſtands in the neighbourhood of the two former hoſpitals, and conſiſts of a very plain building, which was erected in 1743. The expence was defrayed by voluntary ſubſcription; and the ordinary mode of ſupporting the eſtabliſhment is by a tax of two *per cent.* on the valued rents of the city, by collections at the church doors and other charitable donations, by the labour of the perſons reſiding in it, and by voluntary contributions of the citizens made in conſequence of public intimation of a deficiency of the funds. In the Canongate,

Canongate, and in the pariſh of St. Cuthbert, are ſimilar eſtabliſhments, which are ſupported in the ſame manner.

Merchants' Maiden Hoſpital. The hoſpital which bears this name was erected toward the end of the ſeventeenth century by voluntary contribution; to which the company of merchants gave peculiar aſſiſtance; and Mrs. Mary Erſkine contributed 12,000 merks. Its annual revenues are now conſiderable, amounting to upwards of 1,400*l.* ſterling. Seventy girls are maintained in it, who receive the profits of their own work, and a trifling ſum on their leaving the houſe. The building is very ordinary.

Trades' Maiden Hoſpital. Near to this is ſituated the Trades' Maiden Hoſpital, inſtituted ſoon after the former, deſtined for the education and ſupport of the daughters of decayed tradeſmen. Mrs. Mary Erſkine was a liberal contributor to this charity.

Orphan Hoſpital. From the North Bridge is ſeen, cloſely adjoining on the north-eaſt of it, the Orphan Hoſpital. It was planned by Andrew Gardener, merchant in Edinburgh in 1732, received countenance from the Society for Propagating Chriſtian Knowledge, and was aſſiſted by a liberal ſubſcription. Orphan children are received not under ſeven years of age, from any quarter of the kingdom, and are not continued after fourteen. Its revenues are inconſiderable, being ſupported chiefly by ſmall benefactions from charitable perſons, and by a part of the ſums collected at the church doors.

Trinity Hoſpital is ſituated in the neighbourhood of Trinity College church, and endowed by the ſame foundreſs, Mary of Gueldres. After ſome diſaſters at the Reformation, it ſurvived the fate of moſt other religious and charitable eſtabliſhments, and was deſtined for the ſupport of decayed burgeſſes of Edinburgh, their wives and unmarried children, not below fifty years of age. Forty perſons are maintained in it, beſides a conſiderable number of out-penſioners. The reſidents are very liberally ſupported, being allowed decent clothes, ſeparate apartments, and a ſmall library.

Diſpenſary. The public diſpenſary is a valuable inſtitution, founded in 1770, by Dr. Andrew Duncan, phyſician. It is chiefly ſupported by voluntary contributions, and reſembles eſtabliſhments of the ſame deſcription in London.

Gilleſpie's Hoſpital. The founder of this ſtructure was an eminent manufacturer of ſnuff in Edinburgh. It is intended for the ſupport of aged perſons; and thoſe bearing the name of the founder are preferred. It is a neat ſtone building, executed in a ſtyle of moderate expence, with a ſmall tower in the centre and a parapet, and Gothic turrets at ſuitable diſtances

tances around the roof. It ſtands to the north-weſt of the caſtle, near a ſuburb called Wright's Houſes.

There are alſo in Edinburgh, a *Magdalen Hoſpital*, a *Lying-in Hoſpital*, a *Hoſpital for the Induſtrious Blind*, and a *Society for the Relief of the Deſtitute Sick.*

PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS.

THE public amuſements of Edinburgh do not form a conſpicuous figure in its deſcription. There is no Opera-houſe, nor any public muſical eſtabliſhment. The *Theatre* is ſmall, and although curioſity occaſionally attracts full audiences, it is not, in general, well attended. There is a *Circus* for horſemanſhip, but it is not of ſufficient importance to require particular notice. The amuſements moſt popular and moſt congenial to the general diſpoſition ſeem to be thoſe in which the parties to be amuſed can take an active ſhare, and particularly thoſe which are familiarized by habit, endeared by national peculiarity, or recommended by the poſition of the city. Among theſe may be mentioned, the various *Societies of Archers*; the *Golf Club*, the *Caledonian Hunt*, and the *Leith Races.*

POLITICAL STATE

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

THIRD GENERAL DIVISION.

IRELAND.

HISTORY. The period of the firſt population of Ireland has given riſe to much looſe conjecture, and much ingenious diſcuſſion. The great predilection of the people for the boaſt of anceſtral antiquity, has led many writers to ſubſcribe to a belief in the genealogy of a long ſeries of kings of whom nothing is known but their names, while the ingenuity of a learned antiquary has ſhewn a ſtriking and curious affinity between the vernacular language of the Iriſh at this day, and the only remaining trace of the Carthaginian or Phœnician tongue preſerved by Plautus. Without exploring theſe profound receſſes of inquiry, it will be ſufficient to give a ſhort view of Ireland, and its hiſtorical epochs, as detailed by Mr. Pinkerton.

The large and fertile iſland of Ireland, being ſituated to the weſt of Great Britain, was probably diſcovered by the Phœnicians as early as the ſiſter iſland. On the firſt dawn of hiſtory, and when the north-weſt of Europe was as obſcure to the Greeks as the iſlands on the north-eaſt of Siberia were recently to us, it would ſeem that Ireland conſtituted one of the Caſſiterides. The poems aſcribed to Orpheus deſerve no credit, but it appears that the iſland was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna, about two centuries before the birth of Chriſt. When Cæſar made his expedition into Britain, he deſcribes Hibernia as being about half the ſize of the iſland which

which he had explored; and while the Romans maintained their conqueſts in the latter region, Ireland continued of courſe to be well known to them; and Ptolemy has given a map of the iſland which is ſuperior in accuracy to that which repreſents Scotland. Toward the decline of the weſtern empire, as the country had become more and more known, and had been peopled with various tribes, the Romans diſcovered that the ruling people in Ireland were the Scoti; and thenceforth the country began to be termed Scotia, an appellation retained by the monaſtic writers till the eleventh century, when the name Scotia having paſſed to modern Scotland, the ancient name of Hibernia began to re-aſſume its honours. It is ſuppoſed that this name, and the Gothic denomination Ireland, are mere modifications of the native term Erin, implying the country of the weſt.

It is probable that the original population of Ireland paſſed from Gaul, and was afterward increaſed by their brethren the Guydil from England. About the time that the Belgæ ſeized on the ſouth of England, it appears that the kindred Gothic tribes paſſed to the ſouth of Ireland. Theſe are the Firbolg of the Iriſh traditions; and appear to have been the ſame people whom the Romans denominated Scoti, after they had emerged to their notice by not only extending their conqueſts to the north and eaſt in Ireland, but had begun to make maritime excurſions againſt the Roman provinces in Britain. But Ireland had been ſo much crowded by Celtic tribes, expelled from the continent and Britain, by the progreſs of the German Goths, that the Belgæ almoſt loſt their native ſpeech and diſtinct character; and from intermarriages, &c. became little diſtinguiſhable from the original population except by ſuperior ferocity, for which the Scoti, or thoſe who affected a deſcent from the Gothic colonies, were remarkable; while the original Gael ſeem to have been an innocuous people.

Hiſtorical Epochs. The firſt hiſtorical epoch of Ireland is its original population by the Celtic Gauls, and the ſubſequent colonization by the Belgæ.

2. The maritime excurſions of the Scoti againſt the Roman provinces in Britain.

3. The converſion of Ireland to Chriſtianity in the fifth century, which was followed by a ſingular effect; for while the maſs of the people retained all the ferocity of ſavage manners, the monaſteries produced many men of ſuch piety and learning, that Scotia or Ireland became celebrated all over Chriſtendom.

4. This luſtre was diminiſhed by the ravages of the Scandinavians, which began with the ninth century, and can hardly be ſaid to have ceaſed when the Engliſh ſettlement commenced.

The

The iſland had been ſplit into numerous principalities, or kingdoms as they were ſtyled; and though a chief monarch was acknowledged, yet his power was ſeldom efficient, and the conſtant diſſenſions of ſo many ſmall tribes rendered the iſland an eaſy prey.

5. In the year 1170, Henry II. permitted Richard Strongbow Earl of Pembroke to effect a ſettlement in Ireland, which laid the foundation of the Engliſh poſſeſſions in that country. There are, however, coins of Canute King of England, ſtruck at Dublin, perhaps in acknowledgment of his power by the Daniſh ſettlers.

6. Ireland began to produce ſome manufacturers about the fourteenth century, and her ſayes or thin woollen clothes were exported to Italy. It is probable that theſe were produced by the Briſtolian colony, which had paſſed to Dublin.

7. Richard II. of England attempted in perſon the conqueſt of Ireland, but being imprudent and ill ſerved, nothing of moment was effected. The ſubſequent attempts of the Engliſh monarchs to accompliſh this purpoſe need not be enumerated.

8. In the reign of James I., Ireland became entirely ſubjugated; and colonies of Engliſh and Scots were eſtabliſhed in the north.

9. The chief mean of the aſſimilation of the countries having been completely neglected, namely, the univerſal inſtitution of parochial ſchools, for the education of children in the proteſtant religion and Engliſh language, the Iriſh continued a diſtinct people; and being inſtigated by their fanatic prieſts, executed their dreadful maſſacre of the Engliſh ſettlers in 1641. This inſurrection was not totally cruſhed till Cromwell led his veterans into Ireland.

10. The appearance of James II. in Ireland to reclaim his crown, may alſo deſerve a place.

11. The amazing progreſs of Ireland in manufactures and commerce, within theſe twenty years, may be claſſed as the moſt illuſtrious of its hiſtorical epochs.

12. The deplorable events which happened in Ireland toward the cloſe of the eighteenth century led the way to its Union with Great Britain, a meaſure which it is eagerly to be hoped will be productive of great reciprocal advantages.

Extent and Population. Theſe points are not ſo exactly defined with reſpect to Ireland, as they are in England and Scotland. This iſland, which next to Great Britain is the largeſt in Europe, lies at no great diſtance from the weſtern ſhores of England, and is ſtill nearer to the coaſt of Scotland. It is ſeparated from Britain by the Iriſh ſea, which varies in breadth from fourteen to forty leagues; but between Scotland

and

and the county of Down it is contracted into a channel only ſix leagues wide, and farther north, to a ſtill narrower ſtrait of leſs than four, between the north-eaſt point of the coaſt of Antrim and the Mull of Kintyre. Ireland has not yet been ſurveyed with ſufficient care to determine exactly either its ſize or its ſituation. The maps hitherto formed have not been ſufficiently accurate to make the exact ſize of the country certain. Mr. Pinkerton ſays the extent is about 300 miles in length, and about 160 at the greateſt breadth, and the contents in ſquare miles may be computed at 27,457. Mr. Wakefield, uſing a map publiſhed by Mr. Arrowſmith, which he deems to be the moſt correct extant, makes the ſuperficial contents of the iſland, including the inland lakes, 32,201 Engliſh ſquare miles, equal to 12,722,615 Engliſh, or 20,437,974 Iriſh acres.

The legiſlature of Ireland before the Union never attempted to procure a correct enumeration of the people; a bill for that purpoſe was brought into the Houſe of Commons of the United Kingdom, but ſpeedily abandoned; conſequently all notions on this ſubject are left in a conſiderable degree to ſpeculation and conjecture, but the ſagacity of political writers has found data capable of affording ſatisfactory reſults.

Sir William Petty, the firſt authority on this ſubject, ſtates the following progreſs of population. The number of people

In 1652.	- - was - -	850,000
1672.	- - - -	1,100,000
According to Mr. South, the computation was,		
1695.	- - - -	1,034,100
By a poll tax return in		
1731.	- - - -	2,010,221

Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce, ſtates from the papers of Dr. Maule, Biſhop of Dromore, that the number was, in 1733, 2,000,000. According to a return made by the collectors of hearth money, the number of houſes in the year ſpecified were as follows:

1754. - - - - -	395,439
1767. - - - - -	424,646
1777. - - - - -	448,426
1785. - - - - -	474,322
1788. - - - - -	621,484

The papers in the Tranſactions of the Royal Iriſh Academy, from which theſe numbers are extracted, were written by Mr. Buſhe, firſt commiſſioner of the revenue, who has ſubjoined to his table a great many curious remarks which are worthy of atten-

attention. The houſes of which he cauſed the population to be taken, gave 6¼ ſouls each; now if, omitting the fraction, we allow only ſix to a houſe, the number of inhabitants, according to this mode of computation, muſt have amounted to 3,728,904. By a ſimilar return, obtained in 1791, under the direction of Mr. Wray, inſpector of hearth money, it appears that the nnmber of houſes was 701,102; and reckoning ſix to a houſe as a medium, we ſhall have for the whole number of inhabitants 4,206,612.

In an inquiry into the population of Ireland publiſhed by Mr. Newenham in 1805, the author, proceeding on a calculation formed by Dr. Price, that the number of inhabitants doubles in 46 years, eſtimates the annual increaſe at 91,448 ſouls, and conſequently fixes the population at about 5,398,436. And if theſe baſes are admitted, the addition of 91,448, for every ſucceeding year, with perhaps a ſmall ſuper-addition for the increaſe of the increaſe, will furniſh a rationally conjectured total for any year for ſome time to come.

Mountains. In conſidering the face of the country it muſt be remembered that Ireland forms a ſtriking contraſt to Scotland, being moſtly level, fertile, and abundant in paſturage. The chains of hills, for they can hardly aſpire to the name of mountains, are few and unimportant; an upland ridge divides the country from the N. E. to the S. W., giving birth to ſeveral of the rivers. The Iriſh hills generally form ſhort lines, or detached groupes. One groupe of conſiderable height appears on the weſt and ſouth of Lough Lane, or what is called the Lake of Killarney: of theſe Mangerton is 2,500 feet above the ſea. A ſmall line of hills extends on the north-weſt of Bantry Bay, and paſſes to the eaſt, under the name of the Shehy Mountains. To the north of this is the line of Sliblogher and Nagles: followed by the Galtee mountains; and toward the eaſt are thoſe of Knockendown, which bend ſouthward toward the bay of Dungarvon. A ſmall chain alſo appears to the ſouth of Tralee, which with a groupe to the north-eaſt may be ſaid to complete the enumeration of the mountains of Munſter.

In Leinſter is a mountain ſo called, the line of Slieb-loom on the S. W., and a conſiderable groupe to the ſouth of Dublin, ſtyled the Kippure mountains, or thoſe of Wicklow. The extent of this groupe is about 30 Engliſh miles in length, by about 12 in breadth.

In Ulſter is a ſmall groupe called the mountains of Mourne, in the S. E. corner of the province; one of them, Donard, is ſaid to be about the height of Mangerton. The hills of Slievecroob (in the Iriſh language *ſliebh* ſignifies a mountain,) form the

the centre of the county of Down; and ſeveral hills are ſprinkled over the eaſtern half of Antrim. On the north-weſt of Loughnear are thoſe of Slievegallan and Carntogher. Slieve Snaght is a conſiderable mountain N. W. of Loughfoyl, whence other lines and groups extend down to Loughern.

The eaſtern part of Connaught preſents numerous marſhes; but few mountains except thoſe of Baughta on the ſouth. The extreme weſtern peninſula is one of the moſt mountainous regions in Ireland. Among other names may be mentioned Mount Nephin in the county of Mayo, a ſolitary hill of 2,640 feet, and one of the moſt conſiderable in the iſland. That of Croagh Patrick on the S. E. of Clewbay, a cone of 2,666 feet; the Fernamoor mountains to the weſt of Loughmaſk; and the 12 pins, a line of ſo many ſmall peaks in Ballinahinch; with others to the ſouth of Loughcorrib.

The following is furniſhed by Mr. Wakefield as a comparative table of the elevation above the level of the ſea, of ſome remarkable eminences in England, Scotland, and Ireland, with the authorities for the heights.

ENGLAND.

		Feet.	Meaſured by
Whernſide	Yorkſhire -	5340	Jefferys
Ingleborough	ditto -	5280	ditto
Penny Gueſt	ditto - -	5220	ditto
Snowdon	Wales - -	3568	Pennant
Pendlehill	ditto - -	3411	Waddington
Croſsfellin	Cumberland -	3390	Donald
Hellvellyn	ditto - -	3324	ditto
Skiddaw	ditto - -	3270	ditto

SCOTLAND.

Benlomond	- - -	3240	Pennant
Benewick	- - -	4350	ditto
Benybord	- - -	ſtill higher	

IRELAND.

Curranea, Toohill, or M'Gilleycuddy's Reeks	Kerry	3695	Kirwan
Mangerton -	ditto	2693	ditto
Sliebh Donard -	Down	2809	ditto
Nephin - -	Mayo	2630	ditto
Crow or Broagh Patrick	ditto	2660	ditto

FORESTS. Scarcely the ſemblance of a foreſt remains in Ireland; and Boate has long ſince obſerved that the woods have been greatly diminiſhed ſince the entrance of the Engliſh, partly from the extenſion of tillage, and partly from the neceſſity

of opening up the receſſes of banditti. Another great cauſe was the conſumption in domeſtic fuel, and in the iron manufactures, the coal mines not having been explored. Yet Boate informs us that conſiderable woods exiſted in his time in Wicklow, Wexford and Carlow, Kerry, Tipperary, and Cork. The province of Ulſter alſo boaſted of extenſive foreſts, in the counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Antrim. The weſtern province of Connaught, being the moſt remote from the new colony, was in his time ſtored with trees; but the moſt noted foreſts were in the counties of Mayo and Sligo.

Bogs. According to a report made to parliament by a board of gentlemen, appointed to examine the bogs in Ireland, it is eſtimated that they cover at leaſt one million of acres; but as "mountain bog and bog under five hundred acres" are excluded from the computation, the ſurface covered by them is probably much greater. The commiſſioners conclude that ſix-ſevenths of the bogs of Ireland occupy a portion of the iſland ſomewhat greater than one-fourth of its whole ſuperficial extent, included between a line drawn from Wicklow Head to Galway, and another drawn from Howth Head to Sligo, reſembling in form a broad belt, ſtretched acroſs the centre of the country, with its narroweſt end nearer to the capital, and gradually extending in breadth as it approaches the weſtern ocean. This diſtrict includes a number of bogs, called in general the "Bog of Allen," which contrary to the prevailing opinion in England, is not one continued moraſs of immenſe extent, but conſiſts of a number of bogs adjacent to each other, and all contained within the belt deſcribed by the commiſſioners. They all, however, lie on the weſt ſide of the Shannon, and are for the moſt part of that kind called Red Bog, being very different in appearance from the deep black bog found to the ſouth of Lough Neagh in the province of Ulſter, or the high mountain bogs which are ſeen in almoſt every part of the iſland. The origin of theſe maſſes of inert vegetable matter has given riſe to many learned antiquarian and philoſophical diſcuſſions, and notwithſtanding all the modern diſcoveries, it appears to be ſtill undetermined when or by what means they were formed. That they are not primitive or original maſſes of earth, appears certain, becauſe they are found chiefly in northern countries, and always cover timber, various utenſils, and coins, the two latter of which are certain indications of the hand of man previous to their exiſtence. Foſſil timber in great quantities has been dug up from many of the bogs in Ireland; and is found alſo in all bogs in every country of Europe. From this circumſtance, many have been induced to believe, that bogs originate from decayed foreſts, which by

ſome accident or convulſion of nature have been overturned and buried. Mr. Griffith, who was employed by the Iriſh commiſſioners to ſurvey a conſiderable extent of bog, ſtates in his report, "that thoſe bogs which fell under his obſervation were not produced by any cauſe of this kind, as trees, or the branches of trees, are rarely found in the interior of the deep and extenſive bogs of Ireland, but are always met with at the edges, or near gravelly hills or iſlands in theſe bogs, lying horizontally, and in no particular direction; frequently croſſing each other, and either attached to their roots or ſeparated from them. In the latter caſe the ſtumps uſually ſtand upright in the place where they grew, having ſix or eight feet of the bog ſometimes above them, and three, four, or five feet, but rarely more, below their roots" It is difficult to account for this circumſtance, and therefore, without aſcribing the origin of bogs to decayed timber alone, it may be conſidered as one of the chief cauſes of their formation. Bogs are divided by Boate into ſeveral genera and ſpecies, forming an elaborate ſcale of ſterility. The dry heaths are chiefly confined to the mountains. The bogs he ſubdivides into four deſcriptions: 1. The graſſy, in which the water being concealed by herbage, they become extremely perilous to travellers, ſome of theſe are dry in the ſummer. 2. The pools of water and mire. 3. What he terms haſſocky bogs, or ſhallow lakes ſtudded with tufts of ruſhes, which are chiefly found in the province of Leinſter, eſpecially in King's and Queen's Counties; and 4. The peat moors. Hopes have been entertained of draining the bogs and converting them to agricultural purpoſes, but Mr. Wakefield, after an ample and elaborate view of the ſubject, does not conſider it as preſenting well founded hopes of ſucceſs, to any great extent.

Rivers. The principal rivers of Ireland are now to be noticed. Few countries abound more with ſprings or running ſtreams; for, excluſive of ſuch brooks as have their ſources on the ſides of hills, or from fountains on plains, of which there are many, there are others that run out of bogs, and more that iſſue from lakes, which are not only very ſerviceable in domeſtic uſes, and for all the purpoſes of huſbandry, but are likewiſe ſo eaſily adapted to machines, that windmills are very rarely met with in this country. But in regard to the rivulets that roll down from the hills, they are more ſubject here, than in many other places, to overflow upon ſudden rains, and to ſwell in a very ſhort ſpace of time, from very ſmall rills, to deep and dangerous torrents. The rivers of Ireland are alſo very numerous; but though there are ſeveral very conſiderable in point of ſize, not a few that run a pretty long

long courſe, and ſome capable of bearing even large boats many miles above their fall into the ſea; yet it muſt be acknowledged, that rivers navigable in a like ſenſe with the Trent, the Severn, and the Thames, are not to be found in this iſland.

Shannon. The chief river is the Shannon, which riſing in the county of Leitrim, after running a few miles, diffuſes itſelf ſo as to aſſume the name of Lough Allyn; iſſuing from thence with a much fuller ſtream than it entered, after a progreſs of ſeveral miles, it again expands its waters, ſo as to form Lough Eſke, which, though of conſiderable length, is not very broad. Paſſing from thence, it forms another lake, called Lough Ree, fifteen miles long, and five broad. On its exit from this lough, it appears a large and beautiful river; till breaking forth again, between the counties of Tipperary and Clare, it forms Lough Derg, or Derke, eighteen miles long, and four broad. Leaving this, it rolls with a full and mighty ſtream for many miles, and falls at length into the ſea, about fifty miles below Limerick, at a place called Knock Patrick, with ſo vaſt a body of water, that this alſo has been ſtiled a lough, though it is now ſimply called the Shannon; which Camden interprets Shan awn, the old river; but Baxter inclines rather to Seen aun, in the old Britiſh Synn ævon, i. e. the ſlow river. The whole courſe of this ſtream is upward of two hundred miles, and it is ſaid to be ſeven miles broad at the mouth. In the commencement of the reign of George II., an act was paſſed for removing every impediment in the paſſage by that river, between the town of Carrick Drumſna in the county of Leitrim, and the city of Limerick. Commiſſioners or undertakers were appointed to proſecute, at their own coſt and charges, this deſign, and they were authorized to impoſe certain tolls and duties for the repayment of the expenſe, and for the ſupport of the neceſſary works. By a concurrence, however, of untoward circumſtances, the execution of the propoſed ſcheme was delayed for many years, and not ſeriouſly undertaken till a complete change had been made in the original plan. Inſtead of the commiſſioners or undertakers, who were firſt appointed, a new and perpetual council was created, under the title of "The Corporation for promoting and carrying on an Inland Navigation in Ireland;" compoſed of the lord-lieutenant or chief governor, the Archbiſhop of Armagh, the lord chancellor or lord keeper, the three other archbiſhops, the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons for the time being, and twenty commiſſioners from each of the four provinces of

Ireland, with a power of filling up vacancies, as they ſhould happen, by election.

Barrow. The Barrow, which is probably the Birgus of Ptolemy, is a noble river, and of a very long courſe. It riſes in King's County; and running for a ſhort ſpace north-eaſt, makes a kind of elbow; continuing afterwards a ſouth-eaſt courſe, it divides the King's and Queen's Counties from that of Kildare. Proceeding next through the heart of the county of Catherlogh, it ſeparates the counties of Kilkenny and Wexford: till a little before it reaches the town of Roſs, it receives the river Nore, which is ſometimes written Our; and then varying its courſe ſomewhat to the weſt, mingles its waters with thoſe of the Suir, in making the right arm of Waterford Haven.

Blackwater. This river, which is alſo called *Broadwater*, and by the natives Avonmore, is by Dr. Campbell, in oppoſition to Camden, ſuppoſed to be the Daurona of Ptolemy. It riſes in a ſwampy bog, near Caſtle Iſland in Kerry, from whence it runs to Blackwater-bridge, being ſtill but a ſmall ſtream; proceeding forward about ſix miles farther to Cullin, thence to Ballydawly, Driſhane, and ſo eaſterly to Mallow, where there is a fair ſtone bridge over it, and then rolls forward to Fermoy, where it has a ſecond bridge; and thus purſuing a courſe due eaſterly till it enters the county of Waterford; paſſing by Liſmore, whence having run in the whole near fifty miles due eaſt, it comes to Cappoquin, where there is a bridge over it; and there making an angle, it turns to the ſouth, proceeding in a pretty ſtraight courſe ten miles further, till it falls into the ſea at Youghall.

Slaney. The river Slane or Slaine riſes in the ſouth-weſt extremity of the county of Wicklow, and proceeding in a winding courſe, ſometimes turning ſouth-eaſt, ſometimes to the ſouth-weſt, paſſes on through the county of Catherlogh, and then, in a ſouth-eaſt direction, divides the county of Wexford, till, with a full and ſwelling ſtream, it reaches Enniſcorthy, from whence, rolling many miles ſmoothly in a ſouth courſe, at length it makes an elbow, and then running directly eaſt, falls into a bay of the ſea a little below the town of Wexford.

Liffy. The Liffy riſes about ten miles ſouth-weſt from the city of Dublin, and about fifteen weſt from the ſea: while a ſmall ſtream it wanders, for ſome miles, ſouth-weſt, through the county of Wicklow, then running directly weſt, it enters the county of Kildare, where it again forms an elbow, and runs away north-weſt, and at length due north, being then parallel to the ſea, and nearly thirty miles diſtant. After this

this, bending north-eaſt, it purſues its courſe through a pleaſant country till it enters the county of Dublin, where it runs for a little way almoſt due north; and then turning to the eaſt, proceeds with a full ſtream, and with a pretty ſtrong current, to that city, through which, though navigable but a very little higher, it paſſes with a full body of water under two very large and fine bridges, and falls into the Bay of Dublin, at a place called Ringſend.

Boyne. In the King's County riſes the river Boyne, the Bovinda, or Buvinda, of Ptolemy, and alſo called Boandus. It is quickly joined by ſo many rivulets, that, running on north-eaſt, becomes a very conſiderable river in its paſſage through the county of Kildare, and ſtill ſtronger in its courſe, and more beautiful in its appearance, when it enters the rich county of Eaſt Meath, where it waters Trim, the county town, and then paſſes on to Navan and Slane. From the latter of theſe it proceeds to Drogheda, which it divides, and falls into the ſea about two miles below it. The Boyne will be ever famous for the deciſive battle, July 1. 1690.

Bann. The river Bann, poetically called Banna, riſes in the plain called the Deers, or King's Meadow, in the northern part of that ridge of mountains ſtiled the Morne, in the county of Down, and, ſwelled by various little brooks, ſoon becomes a large ſtream. It then takes a ſerpentine courſe to within two miles eaſt of Rathfryland; thence purſuing ſtill a north-weſt courſe, and having ſeveral fair bridges over it, the ſilver Bann comes at length to Portadown, where it makes a moſt ſtately appearance, is joined there by the canal of Newry, and a few miles further, falls into Lough Neagh at Bannfoot Ferry, after running about thirty miles. Out of that lake, continuing its former direction, it breaks forth again above Toome Caſtle, and having forced a paſſage over a ridge of rocks, called the Salmon Leap, ruſhes with impetuous force into the ſea, at what is, from the river, ſtiled Bann Haven, a few miles below Colerain.

Bandon. This river in the county of Cork is mentioned by Spenſer in the Fairy Queen; "The pleaſant Bandon crown'd with many a wood." It was anciently named Glaſheen, and riſes in the mountains of Carbery; paſſing by Dunmanway and Iniſkeen, and then through an elegant park, to Bandon; after traverſing that large and well built town, and paſſing under the bridge, it winds north-eaſt to Inniſhannon, where is alſo another ſtone bridge; it becomes navigable and falls into the Bandon above Inniſhannon, at Liſabroder.

Lee. The river Lee, ſtiled anciently Luvius, though Camden thinks it the Daurona of Ptolemy, riſes out of a lake in the

weſt of Muſkery, called Gangane Barra; and running by ſeveral high mountains, at length expands in Lough Allua; whence being much contracted at its exit it flows very briſkly to Inchigreelagh, where there is a ſtone bridge. In its whole courſe it may run about twenty-ſix Iriſh miles; and receiving many rivulets, and ſome pretty large rivers, it becomes a broad, ſtrong and deep ſtream, which however is not navigable higher than Cork, on account of the Wears. The Lee being joined by the river Glanmire, a little below Cork, diffuſes itſelf ſo as to form a commodious haven, falling at length into the ſea about fifteen miles below that city.

Suir. The river *Suir*, or, as it is ſometimes ſpelt Shure, or Showr, riſes at the foot of Banduff mountains, in the county of Tipperary, where alſo riſes the *Nore*; but they quickly part, and the Suir proceeds ſouth-weſt to Clonecanny; thence it paſſes through Thurles; and growing a conſiderable and very beautiful ſtream, has a ſtone bridge over it at Thurles, Holy Croſs, and ſome other places.

Newry. Newry river is not conſiderable from the length of its courſe, or its ſize. It riſes not far from Rathfryland, in the barony of Upper Iveagh, and runs into Carlingford Bay.

Lagan. The river Lagan, or rather the bay into which it falls, is the Vinderius of Ptolemy. This river riſes in two ſmall ſtreams, out of the ridge of mountains called Slieve Croob, in the barony of Upper Iveagh, which unite about two miles ſouth-eaſt of Dromore, through which the ſtream, now become conſiderable, paſſes under a bridge of two arches. It proceeds thence, through the bridge of Gill Hall; and being ſoon after augmented by another rivulet from two loughs, ſouth of Dromore, paſſes under the bridges of Donogheloney, Gihon, and Magherelin, where it turns north-eaſt, and rolls on till it arrives near Moyrah, flows next under Spence's Bridge, then under the bridge of the Maze, paſſes through Liſburn, Brumbridge, Shaw's Bridge, all in the county of Antrim, and at length under the Bridge of Belfaſt, after which it empties itſelf into Carrickfergus Bay, having run in the whole a courſe of thirty miles.

Derg. The river Derg, ſuppoſed to be ſo called from the oaks growing about it, flows out of a lough of the ſame name, in the connty of Donegal, rolling on many miles in a north-eaſt direction, till it receives the river *Finny*, which runs alſo out of a lough of the ſame name in the northern part of the county, and a third river, called the *Mourne*. Theſe waters, thus collected, take the name of the river *Foyle*, and proceeding ſtill north-eaſt, move on to Lifford, in the county of Donegal,

paſs

paſs afterward by St. Johnſtown, and the city of Derry, below which, at the diſtance of about four miles, they expand themſelves, and uniting with the ſea, produce that large ſalt water lake, known by the name of Lough Foyle.

Political Division.

Ireland is divided into four provinces, Ulſter, Leinſter, Connaught, and Munſter. Each of theſe in ancient times was a kingdom governed by its own monarch, while one general ſovereign, king, or lord paramount, enjoyed dominion over them all as king of Ireland.

Theſe provinces are divided into thirty-two counties, which are ſubdivided into 252 baronies, compriſing 2,436 pariſhes.

Ulster.

The province of Ulſter, the moſt northerly in Ireland, is bounded on the north by the Deucalidonian ſea; on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean; on the eaſt by St. George's Channel and the Iriſh ſea; and on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by the provinces of Leinſter and Connaught. It forms an area of 8,375 Engliſh ſquare miles, and contains nine counties, viz. Antrim, Armagh, Cavan, Fermanagh, Donegal, Down, Londonderry, Monaghan, and Tyrone.

Antrim. Antrim is a maritime county, bounded on the north and eaſt by the ſea, on the ſouth by the county of Down, and on the weſt by that of Londonderry, forty-five miles in length from north to ſouth, and twenty-four from eaſt to weſt; it contains 1,018 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is pretty fruitful, though incumbered with bogs and marſhes in the north. It contains the baronies of *Ballie-Cari*, *Dunlace*, *Kilconway*, *Tome*, *Antrim*, *Glenarm*, *Carrickfergus*, *Belfaſt*, and *Killallagh*.

The chief natural curioſity of this county is the *Giant's Cauſeway*, the formation of which has given riſe to many and various opinions. It is ſituated under high cliffs, and conſiſts of rocks compoſed of pentagonal baſaltic pillars, ſtanding in a perpendicular direction, which extend a great way into the ocean. It is ſeen to moſt advantage at low water. Recollecting that a ſimilar production, the celebrated iſle of Staffa, remained unnoticed till the latter part of the eighteenth century, it is the leſs ſurpriſing that the Giant's Cauſeway ſhould be an object of recent obſervation, and have eſcaped the notice of Giraldus Cambrenſis, Stanyhurſt, and even of the accurate and ingenious

Ware: the firſt account is that given by Sir R. Buckley in a letter to Dr. Liſter 1693. This ſurpriſing collection of baſaltic pillars is about eight miles north-eaſt from Coleraine. The adjacent coaſt is verdant but precipitous; and from it the cauſeway projects into the ſea, to an unknown extent. The part explored is about 600 feet in length; the breadth from 240 to 120; the height from 16 to 36 feet above the level of the ſtrand. It conſiſts of many thouſand pillars, moſtly in a vertical poſition, ſome of them high; others broken, and, for a conſiderable ſpace, of an equal height, ſo as to form a pavement. They are cloſely compacted together; though their ſhapes are various, trigonal, tetragonal, pentagonal. The pillars are rarely compoſed of one entire piece, but moſtly conſiſt of ſhort or long joints, either plane, or concave, correſponding with convex. The pillars are from 15 to 24 inches, or more, in diameter. The adjacent ſhore is moſtly the common crag; but there are a few irregular pillars on the eaſt; and toward the north-eaſt what is called the organ, in the ſide of a hill, conſiſting of fifty pillars; that in the middle forty feet high, the others gradually diminiſhing; ſimilar pillars are alſo found a mile and a half inland, four miles to the weſt of the Giant's Cauſeway.

The grand features of the northern coaſt of Antrim are the capes of Bengore and Fairhead, precipitous promontories diſtant about eight miles. *Bengore* is compoſed of ſeveral ſmaller capes and bays; and contains a vaſt quantity of columnar baſalt. The cape called Pleſkin preſents a magnificent gallery, or colonnade, about 60 feet high, with a lower gallery about 50. The lower ranges contain the moſt ſharp and exact columns. The promontory of Fairhead conſiſts of an immenſe rocky promontory, riſing higher and higher from the inland country, till it terminates abruptly in a perpendicular cliff of gigantic height. According to the account of Mr. Staples, jun. of Liſſon, by whom it has been meaſured, it is forty fathoms, or 240 feet above the rough ground which ſtretches out into the ſea. By another account the meaſurement of the Fairhead, eaſt of Bally Caſtle, appears to be, perpendicular face, 283 feet; total altitude from the level of the ſea, 631 feet. One of the columns is a quadrangular priſm, thirty-three feet by thirty-ſix on the ſides, and about 200 feet perpendicular height. This column is perhaps the largeſt in the world. The ſpecific gravity of the baſaltes, of which this ſtone is compoſed, is about 2.8, from which the weight of the priſm may be readily eſtimated. This baſaltic priſm is greater than the pedeſtal which ſupports the ſtatue of Peter the Great at Peterſburgh, and much greater than the ſhaft of Pompey's pillar at Alexandria.

The

The principal towns are *Belfaſt*, *Carrickfergus*, *Antrim*, *Liſburn*, *Ballymena*, and *Ballymoney*.

Belfaſt ſtands on the weſt ſide of the river Lagan; it is ſuppoſed to have derived its name from the ferry which formerly ſubſiſted there over that river. As this part of Ireland was not thoroughly ſubdued till the time of James the Firſt, this place was far from being conſiderable until, in the next reign, the Earl of Stafford made a purchaſe of the cuſtoms in the bay, which had been anciently granted to the town of Carrickfergus; and ever after that this town throve at the expence of the other. In 1682 the bridge was begun over the Lagan, which has twenty-one arches, and is ſolidly built of free-ſtone. Many circumſtances have contributed to render this a large, flouriſhing, and populous place. The country about it is well peopled and well cultivated, the bulk of the inhabitants are proteſtants, and very induſtrious. It has a great trade with Scotland, and the Weſt Indies; theſe, with the prodigious progreſs of the linen manufacture in its neighbourhood, and the cambric manufacture, have enabled Belfaſt to become the fourth, if not the third town in the kingdom. There are upwards of ſeven hundred looms in it, employed in cotton, cambric, ſail cloth, and linen; beſide manufactures, of glaſs, ſugar, and earthenware.

Carrickfergus, which was alſo called *Knockfergus*, is a ſea port ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of an arm of the ſea called Carrickfergus Bay, or Belfaſt Lough. The aſſizes for the county are held here, as likewiſe for the town, which is a county of itſelf. It was once the principal ſea port of the north of Ireland, and defended by a caſtle, with a garriſon; but the port is now little frequented, and the garriſon removed. King William landed here in 1690, and in February 1760 the town was plundered by Thurot. A franciſcan monaſtery is ſuppoſed to have been founded here in 1232.

Antrim, which gives name to the county, is ſituate at the north-eaſt part of Lough Neagh, from whence is a communication to the ſea northward by the Bann, and eaſtward by the river called *Six-mile-water*, and ſouthward by the Newry canal. It is a place of ſome trade, and has a corporation.

Liſburn, formerly called *Liſnagarry*, ſituate on the river Lagan, poſſeſſes particular privileges for its fidelity in 1641. It is a large handſome town, with a good church, which in conſequence of the cathedrals of Down and Connor being in ruins, was made a cathedral for both dioceſes by patent, 17th of October 1662.

Ballymeara and *Ballymoney* are in no wiſe remarkable.

The

The principal river in this county is the Bann, its houſes are eſtimated at 21,922, the inhabitants at 160,000.

Armagh.

Armagh is an inland county, bounded on the north by the county of Tyrone and Lough Neagh, on the eaſt by the county of Down, on the ſouth by Louth, and on the weſt by the counties of Tyrone and Monaghan; containing 451 Engliſh ſquare miles. In the ſouthern parts of it is a chain of black, and partly uncultivated mountains, called the Fews, thinly inhabited, and preſenting a dreary and melancholy aſpect. In the neighbourhood of the city, however, are numerous incloſures, cultivated fields, and other ſigns of an abundant population. The county is divided into the baronies of *Onealan*, *Towraney*, *Armagh*, *Fewes*, and *Orior*. The principal towns are Armagh, Lurgan, Blackwater-town, Charlemont, and Portadown.

Armagh ſituated on the river Callen, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of all Ireland; the capital of the county, and the place where the aſſizes are held. This city was in a ſtate of utter decay, until it was renovated and beautified, and became a pretty town of good ſize, and well inhabited, through the munificence of Richard Robinſon, D.D., Baron Rokeby, late lord primate. He built a handſome archiepiſcopal palace, and a noble houſe for the ſchool, which is one of the royal foundations of Charles I., and extremely well endowed. To theſe His Grace added a public library, a complete obſervatory, with a liberal eſtabliſhment for the ſupport of an aſtronomer; and ſecured the permanency of his endowments, by ſeveral acts of parliament. The lands with which the ſchool of Armagh is endowed, contain, as appears by the ſurvey made in 1771, 1,530 acres, Engliſh meaſure, including roads, lakes, rivers, and alſo about 100 acres of bog.

The other towns are little worthy of deſcription. The county is watered by the Bann; the Blackwater and the Callen; its houſes are computed to be 21,983; its inhabitants 120,000.

Cavan.

Cavan is an inland county, bounded on the north by the counties of Fermanagh and Monaghan and Meath, on the ſouth by Meath and Longford, and on the weſt by Leitrim: it contains

tains 758 Engliſh ſquare miles, and is divided into the baronies of *Tullagha*, *Tullahoncho*, *Cavan*, *Tollagarvay*, *Clonchy*, *Caſtle Raghen*, and *Clonomoghan*. The ſoil is chiefly a ſtiff clay, which produces naturally a coarſe ruſhy paſture; but in ſome places it has been much amended by cultivation. The ſurface of the country is ſo remarkably uneven, that a level ſpot is rare to be met with; a great part of it is open, bleak, and dreary; but from Cavan to Lough Erne is extremely well wooded and pictureſque. Though many of theſe hills are high and barren, yet none merit the appellation of mountains except Brucehill, in the ſouthern extremity, the lofty Sliebh Ruſſel, which lies partly in Fermanagh, and the mountain of Ballynageeragh, which block up the north-weſt angle. The waters which proceed from the lakes in Weſtmeath flow through this county till they diſcharge themſelves into Lough Erne. In ſome places they conſtitute ſmall lakes, in others retain the form of rivers, and in many caſes they contribute, of courſe, to the formation of beautiful and pictureſque ſcenery. There is a large lake called Shaalan, which is ſeven miles long, but of various breadths, from half a mile to four.

The principal towns are *Cavan*, which is the ſhire town, *Belturbet*, which is pleaſantly ſituated at the ſouth end of Lough Erne, and *Cootehill*.

The county contains 30 pariſhes; the houſes are ſaid to be 16,314; the inhabitants 81,570.

Donegal.

Donegal, formerly called Tyrconnel, is bounded on the weſt and north by the ſea, on the eaſt by the counties of Londonderry and Tyrone, and on the ſouth by the county of Fermanagh, and an arm of the ſea, called the *Bay of Donegal*, about ſeventy miles in length, and from ten to thirty in breadth: it is comduted to contain 1,725 Engliſh miles, and has forty-two pariſhes, 23,531 houſes, and 140,000 inhabitants. It is a very mountainous country, and is nearly divided by a high ridge ſtretching eaſt and weſt from Tiellen-head to the county of Tyrone, and in which there are three paſſes. The whole weſtern coaſt conſiſts of a range of mountainous rocks, which in ſome places throw out branches that extend to the ſea, or run between borders of ſand which has a peculiar whiteneſs, owing, perhaps, to its being formed from fragments of granite waſhed down from the rocks, and reduced to its preſent ſtate by attrition. Between the mountains, in the interior of the county, are tracts of bog; and, at a former period, it is not improbable

improbable that theſe were foreſts; but, at preſent, a traveller may proceed many a mile, without ſeeing the leaſt veſtige of a tree. At Horn Head is a remarkable cavern, called M'Swine's Gun, which is ſituated in a rocky cliff of about ſixty feet in height. In this cliff a ſmall bay has been formed, the ſides of which are bordered by rocks, riſing almoſt in a perpendicular direction. The lower ſtratum of theſe rocks conſiſts of porous ſandſtone, in which the violence and continual buffeting of the waves has formed a cavern, from which an aperture proceeds to the ſummit of the cliff. When the wind comes from the north-weſt, it blows directly into this ſmall bay; and the billows being driven with great violence into the cavern, the water, forced to find a paſſage through the aperture, riſes to the top of the cliff, from which it precipitates itſelf back into the ſea with a moſt tremendous noiſe. The rock, where the water runs over, has aſſumed a blue colour, which gives to the whole a volcanic appearance. To the eaſt ſtands the Arigal, ſaid to be the higheſt mountain in the province; it conſiſts of mountain ſpar, and is ſhaped like a ſugar loaf. The moſt remarkable river in Donegal is the Erne, and there are beſides, the Finn, the Dale, and the Guibarra. At the top of Mount-Alt is a lough bearing the ſame name. The views here are truly magnificent. Lough Swilly is alſo in this county. The baronies into which Donegal is divided are *Eniſh Owen*, *Killmakrena*, *Raphoe*, or *Lagen*, *Boylagh*, or *Bannegh*, and *Tyrehagh*.

The principal towns are the following. *Ballyſhannon*, the county town, ſituate at the extremity of a good harbour, to which it gives its name, and which has a bridge of fourteen arches over the river Erne, and enjoys a conſiderable trade.

Donegal, which gives its name to the county, is ſituated at the mouth of the river Eſk, on a large bay of the Atlantic, on the weſt coaſt of the iſland, called from the town, *The Bay of Donegal*. Its antiquities are, a fine old caſtle, and a monaſtery for Franciſcan Friars of the ſtrict obſervance. The other towns are Killibegs, Lifford, and St. Johnſtown.

Down.

This county is bounded on the north by the county of Antrim and Belfaſt Lough, on the eaſt and ſouth by the Iriſh ſea, and on the weſt by the county of Armagh; about forty miles in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and about 25 in breadth, containing 936 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Ards*, *Caſtlereagh*, *Dufferim*, *Lekeale*, *Kindlearty*, *Lower Evagh*, *Upper Evagh*, and *Mowrane*.

The

The ſurface of the county is irregular. In the centre the Mourne mountains, the ſecond in point of height in Ireland, rear their lofty ſummits; and this grand feature produces a very ſtriking difference in regard to ſome parts of the county. To the north of theſe mountains, and on the weſtern ſide of it, comprehending Hillſborough, Banbridge, Moyallan, and round toward Newry, the land is in a high ſtate of cultivation, and inhabited by a middle claſs of opulent manufacturers, whoſe appearance and habitations would do credit to any country in Europe. The whole tract is embelliſhed with plantations, and every thing exhibits evident ſigns of increaſed population and induſtry. The banks of the rivers Bann and Laggan are covered with bleach-fields, where the whiteneſs of the linen ſpread out, contraſted with the greenneſs of the ſurrounding ſward, produces an effect on the eye not eaſily deſcribed. All the views of Belfaſt Lough are on a grand ſcale.

The number of houſes is computed at 36,636; of inhabitants at 204,500.

Down or *Downpatrick*, the county town, is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt branch of Strangford Lough. It is a town, or rather city, of no great ſize, but boaſts of conſiderable antiquity. The cathedral being in ruins, a ſubſcription was entered into for rebuilding it, and the work was begun, but arreſted in its progreſs by the failure of ſupplies.

Bangor is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of Belfaſt Lough.

Newry is ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which runs into Carlingford Bay; veſſels carrying 200 tons can come up to the town, and, by means of a canal, from Newry to the river Bann, an inland navigation is open for veſſels of 70 tons' burthen. Here is a very conſiderable linen manufacture, and conſiderable trade in ſhipping. In the year 1689, this town was burned by the Duke of Berwick.

The other towns in this county are *Hillſborough*, *Killyleagh*, *Newtown*, *Strangford*, and *Donaghadee*, where the packets from Scotland arrive.

FERMANAGH.

THIS county is bounded on the north by the counties of Tyrone and Donegal, on the eaſt by the county of Monaghan, on the ſouth by Cavan and Leitrim, and on the weſt by Leitrim and Donegal; about 35 miles long, and 27 in its greateſt breadth; containing 694 Engliſh ſquare miles, and divided into two parts by the extenſive lake Lough Erne; it conſiſts of eight baronies, *Lurge*, *Maghereboy*, *Terokenedy*, *Canawley*, *Maghere*, *Kierkelly*, *Krocknie*,

Krocknie, and *Coole*; and is computed to poſſeſs 12,000 houſes, and 73,000 people. The ſurface of the county is hilly, rugged, and uneven, ſome parts are mountainous, but yield paſture for cattle, and no doubt with proper management much might be made fertile in corn: the linen manufacture and raiſing corn are the chief employment of the inhabitants.

The grand feature in the face of this county, ſays Mr. Wakefield, is *Lough Erne*, which ſtretches throughout its own length, forming two large lakes in places embayed by mountains; which, in ſome parts, extend to the edge of the water, and in others receding from it, are ſeen at a diſtance. Both ſides of this noble ſheet of water are, therefore, hilly and uneven; but the country towards Leitrim forms one extenſive range of mountains, of which Belmore, ſwelling out its maſſy ſides towards the lake, is the moſt conſpicuous. There are ſeveral other lakes of inferior ſize in this county, and a great many magnificent ſeats, which are highly worthy of notice. The iſland called Belleiſle in this lough, contains 112 acres. Adjacent to it is another iſland, nearly of the ſame extent; and both exhibit a moſt agreeable proſpect, being covered with thriving woods of aſh, oak, beech, and firs. Immediately to the weſtward, within about a quarter of a mile of Weſt Iſland, is a range of eleven other iſlands, all covered to the water's edge with timber, and ſtretching directly acroſs the lake. The iſlands in theſe loughs lie at various diſtances from each other, ſome of them being half a mile apart. The paſſages between them are ſaid to be as wide, and very ſimilar to, the Straits of Sunda, in the Eaſt Indies. Kelligowan, which is one of them, contains forty acres of land, and produces oak, aſh, firs, willows, and hazel, of an extraordinary ſize, intermixed with briars and underwood. Beyond this is another iſland, far more extenſive, called Enniſmore, and containing 1,400 acres. Among theſe iſlands, the ſcene is continually varying in all directions; the expanſe of water is completely loſt, and in many places the appearance is exactly the ſame as that which occurs to thoſe ſailing either up or down a large river, bordered by woody banks, and purſuing its ſluggiſh courſe amidſt diſtant mountains. Yet theſe reaches are ſhort; and in a moment, on turning round a point of land, the traveller is ſuddenly and unexpectedly aſtoniſhed by a wide expanſe of water, and numerous wooded iſlands, like clumps of trees, emerging from the boſom of the lake. The freſh green colour of Knockninny, Belleiſle, and the Weſt Iſland, together with the diſtant proſpect of the Black Mountain, form a delightful aſſemblage of objects, in which the ſofter beauties of nature are ſo blended with the ſublime, as

to excite a ſenſation of pleaſure mixed with aſtoniſhment. In a word, the beauties of Lough Erne charm by their variety, and the continued change of ſcenery. Toward Caſtle Archdall the lake widens, ſo as to aſſume the appearance almoſt of a ſea. Landing on an iſland called Enniſmackeent, from the centre Lough Erne is ſeen as if the ſpectator were ſtanding in a panorama, 27 iſlands being full in view. On looking back toward the eaſt, he commands the Gully and other wooded iſlands, together with the principal reach, half a mile wide, extending through them towards Enniſkillen. On the right the highland; on the left the promontory of Roſs-clear, and beyond it Roſs Fadd. To the north Caſtle Archdall, with the woods belonging to the domain, and to the weſt a noble bay of great extent, the ſhores of which are bounded on the ſouth-weſt by high land riſing into a lofty mountain, which ſinks down as it ſtretches out of ſight to the ſouth. To the ſouth-weſt of this iſland, ſo full of pictureſque beauty, is a much venerated Roman Catholic burying ground, with a large ſtone-croſs ſtanding on a pedeſtal at its entrance. The falls of Lough Erne at Ballyſhannon are much admired; but the previous fall of Beeleck preſents the moſt intereſting ſcenery and views. The country round Beeleck is truly delightful; the road from Church Hill, forming on the whole a *coup-d'œil* highly intereſting, as it commands the wideſt part of Lough Erne to the right, and above it a mountainous ridge of limeſtone, clothed with graſſy verdure nearly to the top. In front, the wooded peninſula, at Caſtle Caldwell, appears in full view; and the road being on a very elevated ſituation, the greater part of the lake, forming a moſt extenſive ſheet of water, preſents a ſcene of uncommon magnificence. Afterwards the lake becomes contracted, and exhibits the appearance of a river with flat ſides.

Enniſkillen or *Inniſkilen*, the principal town of the county, ſtands on an iſland in Lough Erne. It has a corporation and a free-ſchool, which was founded and endowed by Charles the Firſt. The ſchool lands contain about 3,360 acres *Engliſh*, of which 2,548 are arable and paſture, and are ſituate about ſix or eight miles from the town.

Londonderry.

This county was called Coleraine, and ſometimes Krine. Its preſent name is derived from Derry, its principal city, to which London has been prefixed ever ſince James the Firſt granted the principal part of the county, with the towns of London-

Londonderry and Coleraine to the citizens of London, in conſideration of their ſettling an Engliſh colony after the rebellion, in the north of Ireland, under the name of the Society of the Governors and Aſſiſtants at London, of the new Plantation of Ulſter, in the Realm of Ireland. The county is bounded on the north by Lough Foyle and the Atlantic Ocean, on the eaſt by the county of Antrim, on the ſouth-weſt by the county of Tyrone, and on the weſt by Donegal, extending in its greateſt dimenſions 32 miles from north to ſouth, and about the ſame from eaſt to weſt, and meaſuring 837 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Coleraine*, *Loghinſholm*, *Kenought*, *Tyrekeri*, and the liberty of *Londonderry*, in which are 31 pariſhes with about 25,000 houſes, and 125,000 inhabitants. Its principal waters are the river Foyle and Lough Foyle. The country although not incumbered with mountains of the firſt magnitude, may be called mountainous, the eminences preſenting neither roughneſs nor green herbage, but ſomething between both, which may be called uncultivated vegetation; while the lower parts are inundated with water, and in ſome places have been converted into bogs.

The linen manufacture flouriſhes here.

Londonderry, or Derry, the capital of the county, is a city and ſea-port, ſituate on the weſt ſide of Lough Foyle. It was built in the reign of James I. by the company of London Adventurers, and ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, which are an Engliſh mile in circumference, and furniſhed with five gates. There is a cathedral, built in 1633, the moſt remarkable feature of which is two towers, riſing at the eaſtern end. It was built by the Iriſh ſociety. This place is ſupplied with water by means of pipes, which proceed from a high ridge of hills on the oppoſite ſide of Lough Foyle. Theſe pipes extend along a wooden bridge, 1,080 feet long, the building of which coſt 11,000*l.*; the timber being brought from America. Lough Foyle ſtretches a conſiderable way inwards below Strabane. The epiſcopal palace, which ſtands within the walls, was once uſed as a barrack; but repaired and fitted up for the biſhop. Without the city are excellent gardens belonging to the ſee, and near them is a banquetting room, built in a whimſical ſtyle, the windows of which command a moſt delightful view of Lough Foyle, contracting its breadth as it proceeds into the country, and winding through a reach of great beauty; they have the advantage alſo of overlooking the domain on the oppoſite ſide. The view of the city from the Derry ſide of the bridge is very fine. The bridge is a ſtriking object: and the town, riſing upon the hill, backed by more beyond it, with the ſhining expanſe of water in Lough Foyle; the ſhipping

ping in it, and various other objects of leſs importance, form altogether a grand and impreſſive picture.

The other towns are *Coleraine*, ſituated on the river Banne, which has a ſalmon fiſhery, *Newtown*, *Limavaddy*, and *Cumber*.

MONAGHAN.

MONAGHAN is bounded on the eaſt by Armagh, on the weſt by Fermanagh, on the north by Tyrone, on the ſouth by Cavan, and on the ſouth-eaſt by Louth and part of Eaſt Meath, in Leinſter. It is thirty miles in length, from north to ſouth, and from eleven to twenty in breadth, from eaſt to weſt; containing 809 Engliſh ſquare miles, and forming nineteen pariſhes, with about 21,523 houſes, and 118,000 ſouls. The baronies into which it is divided, are *Trough*, *Monaghan*, *Dartree*, *Cremourne*, and *Farny Donaghmoyne*. The face of this county is hilly; but the hills ſeem as if ſcattered in an irregular manner, without forming continued ridges or chains. The ſoil is in ſome degree ſuperior to that of Cavan, and the country exhibits the appearance of more corn and flax.

The town of Monaghan, the capital of the county, has little worthy of notice.

TYRONE.

THE county of Tyrone, otherwiſe called Tir-Owen or Tir-eoghan, is bounded on the north-eaſt by London Derry, on the eaſt by Lough Neagh, on the ſouth-eaſt by Armagh, on the ſouth by Monaghan, on the ſouth-weſt by Fermanagh, and on the weſt by Donegal. It contains 1,271 Engliſh ſquare miles, and is about forty-three miles in its greateſt length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and from eighteen to thirty-three in breadth. It compriſes the baronies of *Strabane*, *Omagh*, *Clogher*, and *Dungannon*, in which are 35 pariſhes with about 28,700 inhabitants. The ſoil varies exceedingly; in ſome parts it is rich and fertile, in ſome rough and mountainous, but in general cultivated. The linen manufacture flouriſhes in many of the towns; and near Dungannon are ſome collieries.

The chief towns are *Strabane*, ſituated on the river Morne, a populous and well-built place, *Dungannon*, which has a free-ſchool endowed with 1,600 acres of land, *Augher*, ſituate on the river Blackwater, and *Clogher*, which is an epiſcopal ſee.

Province of Connaught.

Connaught is the moſt weſtern province of Ireland, nearly ſurrounded by the Shannon and the ocean: it forms an area equal to 7,191 Engliſh ſquare miles, and comprehends five counties, Galway, Leitrim, Mayo, Roſcommon, and Sligo.

Galway.

This county is next to Cork the moſt conſiderable in point of ſize in the kingdom, but the leaſt populous; it is bounded on the north by Mayo and Roſcommon; on the eaſt by Roſcommon, King's County, and Tipperary; on the ſouth by the county of Clare, and an arm of the ſea, called Galway Bay, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean; about 76 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 40 from north to ſouth, forming an area of 2,593 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Ballinahinch, Roſſe, Moycullin, Clare, Downamore, Ballimoe, Kilmain, Tiaquin, Killconnel, Clon-mac-owen, Loughreagh, Kiltartan,* and the Iſles of *Arran;* which contain 116 pariſhes, and 28 churches. The number of houſes is 28,212, and about 142,000 ſouls.

In appearance this county is exceedingly various. The north-weſt part of it, conſiſting chiefly of the barony of Connomara, remains uncultivated and nearly in a ſtate of nature; with ſcarcely any roads through it. In the inhabited parts there are more gentlemen's ſeats than in any other diſtrict in Ireland; but it contains none remarkable for their magnificence except Dalyſtown. The ſubſtratum throughout the greater part of the country is limeſtone, on which account the verdure is exceedingly luxuriant. In general the fields are ſeparated by ſtone fences. Dr. Beaufort has given an accurate deſcription of the face of the country. Alluding to the thinneſs of inhabitants, he ſays, this very ſcanty population may in ſome degree be accounted for by the rude ſtate of the three baronies on the weſt of Lough Corrib, which amount to a third part of the whole county, as they contain about 341,600 acres. The lake itſelf covers 31,300 acres. The extenſive country on this ſide the lake is flat, with the exception of a few fertile hills of no great height, and ſome low mountains on the borders of Clare. The ſoil is warm and fertile, covering at no great depth a ſtratum of limeſtone rock, which in the baronies of Dunkellin and Kiltartan, and in many other places, riſes ſo thick above the ſurface as to render thoſe parts unfit for tillage, though they are excellent for paſture.

ture. Few ditches are to be ſeen in this county, the fields being chiefly incloſed with dry ſtone wall *, which gives the country a dreary aſpect.

The weſtern part of the county is of quite a different character from the reſt. The barony of Moycullen, which is alſo called Jarconnaught, contains ſome good land on the ſea coaſt and along the beautiful ſhore of Lough Corrib; but the heart of this barony is an aſſemblage of unreclaimable rock and mountain. The rocks at Oughterard and in the bed of the river Fuogh, of which there are immenſe maſſes, are all a a black and white marble, equal at leaſt in beauty with that of Kilkenny; yet there is ſeldom employment for more than one ſolitary artiſt in working up a few chimney pieces. Lough Corrib ſomewhat reſembles Lough Erne in its form, and extends 20 miles in length, being 11 wide in the broadeſt part; in the middle it is contracted to a ſmall channel, which is croſſed by a ferry at Knock.† There is a freſh water muſcle in this lake that produces occaſionally ſome few pearls. The large barony of Ballynahinch, which is better known by the name of Connamara, abounds with fine harbours, but is alſo extremely mountainous. The hills of Ourred and Caſhel are very high, and the vaſt ridge called Beannabeola, or the twelve pins, which is a well known ſea mark, conſiſts almoſt of perpendicular rocks. At the foot of this ridge, cloſe to the little village of Ballynahinch, a charming lake ſpreads itſelf for ſome miles; and on the river which runs from it into Roundſtone Bay, there is a great ſalmon fiſhery. On the ſides of hills and in villages, which are watered by rivers and ſmall lakes, and ſheltered in ſome places by the venerable remains of ancient woods, the ſoil is moſtly inclined to a black bog; but gravel, ſand, or rock, lie at no greater depth than from one to three feet below the ſurface. Great quantites of kelp are made along the coaſt; and by manuring with ſea-wreck the land is rendered very productive to the ſcattered families that inhabit it, who are all little farmers and hardy fiſhermen. The northern part of Ballynahinch and the barony of Roſs are called Joyces country, and inhabited chiefly by a clan of that name. Roſs is alſo extremely rough; Mamtraſna, on the borders of Mayo, is very high, and Ben-Levagh at the north-weſt angle of Lough Corrib is a ſtupendous mountain. Yet the borders of the lake, the ſhore of the Killeries, and the valley through which the river Bealnebrack runs, are pretty well peopled, and the ſoil ſuch as would amply repay the pains and expence of good cultivation.

* The ſame fences prevail in a great part of Roſcommon, of Mayo, and of Clare.

† A great number of concealed rocks, render the navigation of this lake dangerous to thoſe who are not well acquainted with it.

This county, which reaches from the ſea to the Shannon, is well watered by rivers and lakes: ſeveral of the rivers are in part of their courſe ſubterraneous. The Black River, on the bounds of Mayo, dips for about three miles near the village of Shrule. The Clare and the Moyne unite their waters under ground, alternately appearing and retiring from view at the Turlachmore, which in winter forms a lake, and in ſummer a beautiful and ſound ſheep walk, upwards of ſix miles in length and two in breadth. Near Gort there are a vaſt number of these *ſwallows*, in which ſome part of almoſt every river and brook in the neighbourhood is engulphed. The river Guſtnamakin dips ſeveral times, and after a concealed courſe of two miles, riſes on the beach below high water mark, and diſcharges itſelf among the rocks in the Bay of Kinvarra. Lough Reagh is a fine piece of water, and Lough Contra, near the borders of Clare, is ſaid to poſſeſs all the beauties that hills, woods, and iſlands can impart to water.

The maritime advantages of this county muſt not be omitted. The vaſt bay of Galway is ſheltered at the entrance by the three ſouthern iſles of Arran. The ſound between theſe iſlands is a ſafe road, and a number of inlets on the coaſt, as well as the harbour of Galway, are ſufficiently deep for the reception of merchant ſhips; but are more frequented by coaſters and fiſhing boats than by veſſels in the foreign trade. The indented ſhores of Connamara abound in well ſheltered havens; — thoſe of Kilkerran, Birturby, Roundſtone, and Ballynakill, are the largeſt; and the Killeries are at the northern extremity of this diſtrict.

The principal towns are Galway, Tuam, Ballinaſloe, and Loughreagh.

Galway, the capital, is advantageouſly ſituate for commerce, on a bay to which it gives name, in the Atlantic Ocean. It is ſurrounded with ancient walls, which are haſtening to decay; the houſes are generally well built. It was formerly the firſt commercial town in Ireland, and has now a conſiderable trade. The port is very commodious and ſafe, but ſo diſtant from the city that lighters are neceſſary to carry goods into the town.

Tuam, a city by title, as containing the cathedral, is but a village in fact, and the cathedral a mere pariſh church.

Leitrim.

Leitrim is bounded on the north by the bay of Donegal, on the north-eaſt by Fermanagh, on the ſouth-eaſt by Cavan and Longford, and on the ſouth-weſt by Roſcommon and Sligo; about 42 miles in length, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and from 6 to 16 broad, and comprizes 604 Engliſh ſquare miles.

miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Mohill*, *Leitrim*, *Carigallen*, *Ruſclogher*, and *Dromahaire*. The houſes are 10,993, the inhabitants are computed at 76,630. The county is almoſt entirely covered by groups of mountains, which afford only herbage for the cattle. The vallies between them contain ſeveral lakes, ſuch as Lough Allen, Clean Lough, and Lough Melvyn, which give birth to various rivers, ſome of them of conſiderable ſize. The Shannon is ſaid to take its riſe here at Lough Clean, though the honour of producing this noble ſtream is claimed by a ſpot near Florence Court, in the county of Fermanagh.

The town of *Leitrim*, which is the capital of the county, is not entitled to notice.

MAYO.

THIS county is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean and the county of Sligo, on the weſt by Roſcommon, on the ſouth by Galway, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, extending 49 miles from north to ſouth, and 44 from eaſt to weſt; and comprizing 233 Engliſh ſquare miles, including about two thirds of Lough Maſk, cut off by a ſtraight line drawn through it, to the boundaries of the county. The baronies into which it is divided are *Tirawly*, *Erris*, *Buriſhhoole*, *Gallen*, *Coſtello*, *Clonmorris*, *Kilmain*, *Carragh*, and *Moriſk*; theſe form 68 pariſhes, about 27,970 houſes, and 140,000 inhabitants.

The north-weſt part of this county, Erris, is mountainous, boggy, and deſtitute of roads. It contains two mountains of great height, Crow, or Croagh Patrick, and Mount Nephin, the former of which riſes like a pyramid to a great height, and may be ſeen at an immenſe diſtance. The elevation of this mountain above the level of the ſea is ſaid to be 2,666 feet, and that of Nephin 2,640. Theſe mountains hold the fourth rank among the mountains of Ireland; M'Gillycuddy's Reeks, and Mangerton in Kerry, and the Mourne mountains in Downe, all being higher. In their general appearance the diſtricts of the county do not exhibit any ſtriking marks of improvement; they ſhew bad tillage and a thin population. The people in general dreſs in woollen cloths of a dark colour, and their cabins have a miſerable appearance. Timber, it ſeems, would grow well if encouraged, but it is not ſo. There are many lakes in this county which generally extend over a bottom of limeſtone, and communicate with each other under ground. Toward Killala there are ſome parts which exhibit rich paſture, and ſeem well adapted for grazing. "In the flat country which borders upon

the lakes of Maſk and Carrek," ſays Dr. Beaufort, "there are many miles of rocky ground, which at a diſtance appear like one immenſe ſheet of white ſtone; but upon a nearer inſpection of theſe ſingular rocks they are perceived to ſtand in parallel lines from one to three feet above the ſurface, like flag ſtones hitched in the ground upon their edges, and however they may vary in ſhape, ſize, and diſtance, they are all calcareous, and have all the ſame direction. Fiſſures of a great depth are found in ſome of the narroweſt interſtices; but in general the verdure between them is beautiful, and the paſture excellent for ſheep. Large caverns and ſubterraneous waters are alſo frequent in this part of the country, eſpecially near Cong. At the back of that ſmall village a very broad river ruſhes at once from beneath a ſloping bank, and after a rapid courſe of about a mile loſes itſelf in Lough Corrib. It is ſuppoſed to be the outlet of a ſubterraneous channel through which the ſuperfluous waters of Lough Maſk and Lough Carrah are diſcharged into Corrib. This rocky part of Mayo abounds alſo with *turlachs*, as they are called in Iriſh: Theſe are plains, ſome of them very extenſive, which, having no viſible communication with any brooks or rivers, in the winter are covered with water, and become in the ſummer a rich and firm paſturage, the water riſing and retiring through rocky cliffs in the bottoms. There are many fine lakes in this county; lake Conn, at the foot of Mount Nephin, is nine miles long; Lough Maſk is longer by two miles, and conſiderably broader.

Caſtlebar, the principal town, is well built and populous, and carries on a conſiderable trade in linen; it is ſaid to be one of the neateſt towns in Ireland. Lord Lucan, the proprietor of the town and adjacent country, has built a large linen hall, over which is a handſome aſſembly room. The town has alſo a hotel, and a charity ſchool for 60 girls.

ROSCOMMON.

Is bounded on the north by Sligo and Leitrim, on the eaſt by Leitrim, Longford, and Weſtmeath, on the ſouth by King's County, and on the weſt by Galway and Mayo; 47 miles long from north to ſouth, and from 9 to 29 broad from eaſt to weſt; forming an area of 891 Engliſh ſquare miles, Its baronies are *Roſcommon*, *Boyle*, *Athlone*, *Ballintobar*, *Moycarne*, and *Ballimoe*. It has fifty pariſhes, about 17,140 houſes, and 86,000 inhabitants.

The ſubſtratum of the county conſiſts generally of limeſtone, and ſtone fences are employed to incloſe and ſeparate the fields.

Its

Its moſt prominent features are rich and beautiful paſtures. There are extenſive bogs, and indeed the whole face of the country exhibits either bogs or green fields, and as the graſs ſprings from a calcareous ſoil, the verdure is exceedingly luxuriant. At Longford, near the manſion of Lord Boyle, is a beautiful lake of five miles by four, which fills the bottom of a gentle valley, almoſt of a circular form, bounded very boldly by the mountains.

Elphin is a biſhop's ſee; *Athlone*, a more conſiderable place, was once ſo; it is placed on the Shannon, and has a caſtle, a ſtone bridge, and a charter ſchool for forty boys. *Roſcommon*, the ſhire town, ſometimes called Affilyn, is a mean place. *Boyle* is ſituated on the river *Buelle* or *Boyle*, over which there are two ſtone bridges.

SLIGO.

THIS maritime county is bounded on the north by the ſea, on the eaſt by the counties of Leitrim and Roſcommon, and on the ſouth and weſt by Mayo; about 31 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 29 in its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt; making 727 Engliſh ſquare miles. Its baronies are *Carbury*, *Corran*, *Coolavin*, *Leney*, and *Tyreragh*; and contains 39 pariſhes, 11,509 houſes, and 60,000 inhabitants.

Sligo contains very good land, intermixed with large tracts of coarſe and unprofitable ground. In the barony of Carbury are the mountains of Benbulb and Samore; a chain of rough hills extends from Lough Gilly to the bounds of Roſcommon and Leitrim. Tyreragh though level along the coaſt is interſected by large bogs, and the ſouthern part of it is bounded by the Ox Mountain, Sliebh-Dham, and a great range of deſolate hills that extend a good way into the barony of Leney, in which alſo there is a great ſcope of bog. The Curlews and other mountains cover the moſt of Coolavin, and the Kiſhcorran forms a long ridge on the borders of Tyraghrill. Among theſe hills there are many large lakes and abundance of rivers. The Moy riſes in the mountains of Knocknaſhee, and after receiving the waters of Lough Calt, and Lough Conn, flows in a broad ſtream to the Bay of Killala. Lough Arrow is about eight miles long, full of Iſlands, and of a very irregular form. A river of the ſame name proceeds from it, and running northward to Ballyſadere, ruſhes at once into the ſea in a ſtupendous cataract. Lough Garra is alſo an extenſive lake. Lough Gilly exhibits that variety of charming proſpects which bold hills, wooded lawns, and large iſlands clothed with verdure and

crowned with trees, united with a great extent of water, cannot fail to produce.

Upon the river by which the waters of this lake are diſcharged into a large bay, ſtands the town of *Sligo*, and veſſels of two hundred tons can come up to the quays. It has a charter ſchool, for 80 boys, which was opened in 1755. In the year 1245, a caſtle was built in this town by Maurice, Earl of Kildare; and in 1721, it was deſtroyed; but, in 1310, the caſtle was rebuilt by Richard Earl of Ulſter.

Province of Leinster.

Leinster the moſt eaſtern province of Ireland, is bounded on the north by Ulſter, on the eaſt and ſouth by St. George's or the Iriſh Channel, and on the weſt by the province of Munſter. It is the moſt level and beſt cultivated province in the iſland, and contains 7,360 Engliſh ſquare miles. It comprehends the following twelve counties: *Carlow*, *Dublin*, *Kildare*, *Kilkenny*, *King's County*, *Longford*, *Louth*, *Meath*, *Queen's County*, *Weſtmeath*, *Wexford*, and *Wicklow*.

Carlow.

Anciently Catherlogh, is bounded on the north by Queen's County, Kildare, and Wicklow, on the ſouth-eaſt by the county of Wexford, and on the ſouth-weſt and weſt by the county of Kilkenny; 26 miles long, and 23 in its greateſt breadth. It is formed of the baronies of *Ravilly*, *Catherlogh*, *Forth*, *Idrone*, and *St. Mullin's*; which comprize 346 ſquare miles, forming 50 pariſhes, with 8,763 houſes, and 44,000 inhabitants.

It is watered on the weſt by the Barrow; but preſents very few inſtances of that picturеſque ſcenery which abounds in ſome other parts of Ireland. The Slaney alſo flows on the eaſtern ſide of it, and though of ſmall ſize contributes to the beauty of the ſurrounding diſtricts. To the weſt of the Barrow are mountains, and in the ſouth are ſeen thoſe called the Black-ſtairs, which divide Carlow from Wexford. The interior is flat; the ſoil rich and calcareous.

Carlow, or Catherlogh, the chief town, and which gives name to the county, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the river Barrow, which is navigable to Roſs and alſo to Athy, where it forms a junction with the Grand Canal. It was incorporated by James I.

Leigh-

Leighlinbridge is alſo ſituated on the Barrow, over which it has a bridge, built in 1320, by Maurice Jakis, a canon of the cathedral of Kildare; who alſo built the bridge of Kilcullen. Although this is the thriving eſtabliſhment, *Old Leighlin*, now a decayed place, has been from the ſeventh century, the ſee of a biſhop. It is ſituated two miles and a half from Leighlinbridge, was incorporated in 1216.

Tullow or *Tullagh* is alſo a town of ſome conſideration, ſituated on the river Slaney.

DUBLIN.

THE county of Dublin is bounded on the north by the county of Meath, on the eaſt by the Iriſh ſea, on the ſouth by the county of Wicklow, and on the weſt by the counties of Meath and Kildare; it is 25 miles in extent from north to ſouth, and from 9 to 16 broad from eaſt to weſt; forming a ſurface of 388 Engliſh ſquare miles. Its baronies are *Balruddery*, *Nethercroſſe*, *Coolock*, *Caſtleknock*, *Newcaſtle*, *Uppercroſs*, and *Rathdown*, half of which is in this county and the other half in Wicklow. Theſe form 107 pariſhes, of which 20 are in the capital, and the population of the rural part of the county, that is excluſive of the city, is eſtimated at 170,000. The ſoil of this county is very ſhallow; the quantity of ſcavengers' dung, or ſullage of the ſtreets, brought from the city for about four miles round, has, however, greatly improved it. The ſubſtratum is almoſt univerſally a cold clay, holding water like a diſh, and keeping the ſurface in an unprofitable ſtate, unleſs remedied by draining and proper attention. There are about 500 acres of turf bog in the northern parts of the county, and the like quantity of the ſame bog extending into the county of Meath. The common of the Ring, near Balruddery, is alſo partly compoſed of bog; in the ſouth there are alſo turf bogs, in the mountains adjoining Montpelier and Kilmaſhogue, which alone cover three or four ſquare miles. Some parts of thoſe mountains have an irregular ſurface, and great acclivities, and are in many places covered with rocks and ſtones, ſo as to render them nearly uſeleſs. Turning from this gloomy proſpect to the interior of the county, a moſt beautiful ſcene opens, of pleaſant villages, and ornamented country ſeats. There are a few ſalt marſhes interſperſed along the coaſt, but none of any conſequence as to ſize. The principal rivers are the *Liffey*, or the *Anna Liffey*, which runs through the middle of the county and through the capital, diſcharging itſelf into the Bay of Dublin. The *Dudder* takes its riſe in the mountains, and

running by Rathfarnham, Milltown, and Donnybrook, diſcharges itſelf alſo into the bay of Ringſend. *Temple Oge* and *Kimmage* river is a branch of the Dodder, and formerly ſupplied the city baſon entirely with water for the convenience of the inhabitants of Dublin, but now only in part, as the Grand Canal is taken in aid for their more ample relief. There is alſo a ſmall ſtream, which joins the Dodder at Rathfarnham, and ſupplies a few mills. *Ballybough* is the next ſtream worthy of attention; it ſcarcely deſerves the name of a river, but is nevertheleſs ſubſervient to a few mills in its courſe, and empties itſelf at Clontarf. Several other ſmall ſtreams running through different parts of the county, with difficulty keep a few mills at work, at intervals, in the ſummer. Between the counties of Dublin and Meath, on each ſide of the Naul, there is a very good ſtream, that runs a few miles on the borders of the two counties, capable of containing a number of mills for manufacturers of woollen or cotton, grinding corn, and ſimilar purpoſes.

Beſide the capital, which will be deſcribed under a ſeparate head, this county contains populous villages, and ſome ſmall towns. *Swords* and *Newcaſtle* were formerly borough towns, though now little entitled to notice. *Howth* is a ſmall town, ſeven miles and three quarters eaſt from the Caſtle of Dublin; pleaſantly ſituated, and enjoying a fine air. There is a good ſtream of water running near the village, that would anſwer well for ſome manufacture. There is a good light-houſe upon the promontory, it being the north entrance of the Bay of Dublin. *Ireland's Eye* is half a mile north from the hill of Howth, and fronting Baldoyle, diſtance about half a mile; this little iſland is compoſed of a high rock on the north ſide, and what is called the Stags on the eaſt, it is perpendicular, of great height, and very dangerous for ſhipping in tempeſtuous weather; it was ſuppoſed to have been formerly joined to the hill of Howth; ſome medicinal and fragrant plants grow upon it, and on the ſouth-weſt ſide are the ruins of an old chapel; it is about three quarters of a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. *Clontarf* is alſo a large and pleaſant village, two miles and a quarter eaſt from the caſtle of Dublin, on the ſea ſide. The ſheds of Clontarf, as they are called, derive their name from ſtages having been formerly erected there for the purpoſe of drying and curing fiſh; it now contains a large number of handſome and well built houſes, much frequented in the bathing ſeaſon. *Black-rock* is a large, handſome, and pleaſant town, four miles ſouth-eaſt from the caſtle, beautifully ſituated on Dublin Bay, and commanding a fine view of the harbour and the adjacent country; there is a great reſort of company,

company, partly for bathing, and partly for pleaſure. *Lucan*, which has a ſpa, *Glaſſnevin*, and ſeveral other villages, alſo deſerve notice.

KILDARE.

KILDARE, anciently *Chili-dair*, that is, the wood of oaks, is an inland county, bounded on the north by Meath, on the eaſt by Dublin and Wicklow, on the ſouth by Carlow, and on the weſt by King's County and Queen's County; about 32 miles in length from north to ſouth, and from 12 to 21 from eaſt to weſt, and containing 619 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Carbury*, *Ikeathy*, *Salt*, *Naas*, *Connel*, *Ophaly*, *Narragh* and *Reban*, *Kilkea* and *Moone*; and is ſuppoſed to contain 11,200 houſes, and 56,000 inhabitants. This county has no mountains, but comprehends a conſiderable tract of bog, which is ſo extenſive that one gentleman poſſeſſes 18,000 acres. The Duke of Leinſter has in this county 73,000 acres of what is called in Ireland "green land," that is, land fit for tillage and paſture; and as the whole of it nearly is let on determinable leaſes, there are on it of courſe no ſeats embelliſhed with that expence which gentlemen might be induced to beſtow on their own property. It is watered by the Liffey, the Barrow, the Boyne, and ſome minor ſtreams.

The town, or city, and church of *Kildare* were of conſiderable antiquity, but of the original, there are no remains; both the church and other buildings having been frequently plundered and deſtroyed by the Danes. The preſent town, which ſeems to be ſituate eaſtward of the ancient one, ſtands boldly on a riſing ground, and conſiſts of the cathedral, part of the caſtle which is inhabited, the county Infirmary, the pariſh ſchool adjoining the church, a Roman Catholic chapel, a market-houſe, and about 180 indifferent houſes. The *Curragh* of Kildare contain nearly 5000 Engliſh acres, and is under the ſuperintendency of a ranger. It is the Newmarket of Ireland, and generally allowed to exceed the Engliſh race ground in elaſticity of turf, and in characteriſtic beauty; the meetings are holden on the laſt week in April, the ſecond Monday in June, and the ſecond Monday in September, when king's plates are run for by Iriſh bred horſes. Theſe meetings are the principal ſupport of the town. There are alſo in this county the towns of *Naas* and *Athy*, where the aſſizes are held alternately, and ſome others of no note.

Kilkenny.

Is bounded on the north by Queen's County, on the eaſt by Carlow and Wexford, on the ſouth by Waterford, and on the weſt by Tipperary; about 35 miles from north to ſouth, and 19 from eaſt to weſt, or 773 Engliſh ſquare miles. Its baronies are eleven; viz. *Faſſachdining*, *Gallmoy*, *Cranagh*, *Kinkendylib*, *Shellilogher*, *Gowran*, *Kells*, *Knocktopher*, *Ida*, *Ibercon*, and *Iverk*; theſe form 127 pariſhes, containing about 17,570 houſes, and more than 95,000 people. The county is mountainous, but cultivation is making conſiderable progreſs, though much furze is ſtill to be ſeen on the hills. It abounds in fine ſcenery, poſſeſſes a great many gentlemen's ſeats, and the flat diſtricts contain more extenſive tillage farms than moſt parts of Ireland; which greatly improve its appearance. The principal rivers are the *Barrow*, which bounds it on the eaſt, the *Suir*, which forms its ſouthern boundary, and divides it from Waterford and the *Nore*, which croſſes it from north to ſouth.

The city of *Kilkenny*, and the borough of *St. Canice*, or Iriſh-town, according to Dr. Beaufort, form but one large town, which ſtands in the midſt of the county of the city of Kilkenny. It is delightfully ſituated on the river Nore, over which are two handſome bridges. Of the many large and good buildings that adorn this city the biſhop's palace, the magnificent caſtle of the Earl of Ormond, and the celebrated free ſchool or college, founded by the Butler family, and lately rebuilt on a large ſcale, are chiefly entitled to notice. The houſes are decorated with a very beautiful black and white marble, from the large quarries in the neighbourhood of this city, which ſupply various parts of Ireland, and even London, with this commodity. Kilkenny contains about 16,000 ſouls. In this city, and its environs, abundance of blankets and much coarſe woollen cloth are manufactured.

King's County.

Is bounded on the north by Weſtmeath, on the eaſt by Kildare, on the ſouth by Queen's County, and on the weſt by Galway; 34 miles from north to ſouth, and, where broadeſt, 32 from eaſt to weſt, forming 661 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is formed of the baronies of *Warrenſtown*, *Cooleſtown*, *Philipſtown*, *Geſhil*, *Killcourſey*, *Ballicowen*, *Balliboy*, *Garriycaſtle*, *Egliſh*, *Ballibritt*, and *Clonliſk*; which comprize 52 pariſhes, about 13,536 houſes, and 74,500 inhabitants. Excepting the Sliebhbloom mountains,

mountains, which divide it from Queen's County, it is generally flat. On the weſt it is waſhed by the Shannon, which, however, does not here exhibit any of the fineſt of its ſcenery. A great part of the bog of Allan lies within the boundary of this county, one half of it is ſaid to be of this deſcription. This diſtrict, therefore, has a remarkable air of dulneſs. The principal rivers are the *Shannon*, which forms its weſtern boundary, the *Broſna*, the *Boyne*, and the *Barrow*.

Birr, otherwiſe called *Parſons-town*, is the principal place of the county; it is ornamented with a handſome caſtle, which formerly ſtood in the town, with its back toward the country; but the houſes adjoining it have been pulled down, ſo that its ſituation is now much more open and free. A wall is raiſed between it and the town, and the back converted into a front, is well caſtellated.

LONGFORD.

LONGFORD is an inland county, lying in the centre of the kingdom. It is bounded on the north-weſt by the county of Leitrim, on the north-eaſt by Cavan, on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Weſtmeath, and on the weſt by Roſcommon, about 21 miles in length, and 14 in its general breadth, making 366 Engliſh ſquare miles. It conſiſts of the baronies *Longford*, *Granard*, *Ardagh*, *Moydoe*, *Rathline*, and *Shrowle*, in which are 23 pariſhes, about 10,000 houſes, and rather more than 50,000 inhabitants. It is interſected by the Inny, and on the weſt it is watered by the Shannon, which at Loughreagh expands to the ſize of a lake. On the banks of the Inny are 36,000 Engliſh acres of bog, and a great deal of the reſt of the county, particularly toward the north, is in a rough and uncultivated ſtate.

The town of *Longford* ſtands on the river Cammin. It has a charter ſchool for 60 boys. The other towns are *Laneſborough*, *Granard*, and *St. Johnſtown*.

LOUTH.

Is the ſmalleſt county in Ireland, bounded on the north by the county of Armagh, on the eaſt by the Iriſh ſea, on the ſouth by Meath, and on the weſt by Meath and Monaghan. It is only twenty-two miles in length from north to ſouth, and from nine to fourteen in breadth from eaſt to weſt, or 329 Engliſh ſquare miles in the whole. It is divided into the baronies of *Dundalk*,

Dundalk, *Louth*, *Atherdee*, and *Ferrard*; in which are 61 pariſhes, upwards of 11,500 houſes, and about 57,750 inhabitants. Except on the ſide of Carlingford Bay, which is mountainous, the ſoil is in general rich and fertile. It is watered on the ſouth by the *Boyne*, and a magnificent obeliſk, raiſed to commemorate the celebrated battle fought by King William at a ford of the above river, ſtands near ſome ſcenery of great beauty. A wooded glen, through which the triumphant army marched, runs down to the place where it watered the river.

At about nine miles diſtant is *Drogheda*, ſituated on the borders of the county of Meath, and a county of itſelf, holding its own aſſizes. It is a well-built town, on both ſides of the river Boyne, and increaſing in wealth, commerce, and population. This port ſupplies the neighbouring country for many miles round with Engliſh coals, and other heavy goods; and exports conſiderable quantities of corn, the produce of the adjacent and of ſeveral of the inland counties. Here is alſo a celebrated ſchool with a good endowment.

Carlingford is ſituated on an extenſive bay, to which it gives name; and is remarkable for fine flavoured oyſters.

Dundalk is alſo a ſea port, where are eſtabliſhed linen and muſlin manufactories. *Ardee* and *Dunleer*, two other borough towns, preſent nothing remarkable, but the village of *Collon* is highly extolled. It is delightfully ſituated among hills, and Mr. Foſter's extenſive plantations are conſpicuous in every direction for many miles.

Meath.

Sometimes called Eaſt Meath, to diſtinguiſh it from Weſt Meath, is bounded on the north by the counties of Cavan and Monaghan, on the north-eaſt by Louth, on the eaſt by the Iriſh ſea, on the ſouth-eaſt by Dublin, on the ſouth by Kildare, and on the weſt by Weſt Meath; 30 miles from north to ſouth, and from 25 to 35 eaſt to weſt, making 965 Engliſh ſquare miles. The baronies into which it is divided are *Morgallion*, *Slane*, *Duleck*, *Skryne*, *Navan*, *Kells*, *Lune*, *Moyfenrath*, *Deece*, *Ratoath*, and *Dunboyne*. It contains 147 pariſhes, about 22,468 houſes, and 112,400 ſouls.

The ſoil is various, but generally rich, and a few coarſe hills with very little waſte land: the bogs are neither numerous nor extenſive; conſequently fuel is ſcarce and dear. Much coarſe linen is made in this county, but its principal ſources of wealth are derived from the flocks and herds that are fattened,

tened, and the abundance of corn that is raiſed on its fruitful plains. It is watered by the *Boyne*, the *Blackwater*, the *Nenny*, and ſome other ſtreams.

Trim, on the Boyne, is the county town, but although formerly the ſeat of many religious eſtabliſhments, it now containe little that is remarkable.

Queen's County.

Is bounded on the north by King's County, on the eaſt by Kildare and Carlow, on the ſouth by Kilkenny, and on the weſt by King's County and Tipperary. It forms 602 Engliſh ſquare miles, and has the baronies of *Portnehinch*, *Stradbally*, *Balliadams*, *Slewmargy*, *Cullinagh*, *Maryborough*, and *Upper Oſſory*, which compriſes fifty pariſhes, 15,048 houſes, and 82,000 inhabitants.

There are in this county extenſive tracts of bog, and a good deal of cold wet ground, eſpecially near the mountains; yet the greater part of it is well cultivated, and ſome places rich and beautiful. It is a very level country, except in the ſouth-eaſt and on the borders of King's County.

Maryborough, the county town, is ſo called in honour of Mary, Queen of England, who reduced this part of the country to *ſhire ground*, by act of parliament, 6th and 7th Philip and Mary.

Westmeath.

This is an inland county, bounded on the north by Cavan, on the north-eaſt and eaſt by Meath, on the ſouth by King's County, and on the weſt by Roſcommon, and north-weſt by Longford; about 33 miles from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and 24 broad from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt. It contains 592 Engliſh ſquare miles, divided into the baronies of *Foore*, *Delvin*, *Moygoiſh*, *Corkery*, *Molingal*, *Fabill*, *Fertullagh*, *Moycaſhel*, *Rathconrath*, *Kilkenny*, and *Clonlolan*, in which are 62 pariſhes, about 13,700 houſes, and 69,000 inhabitants.

No part of this county is incumbered with mountains, but conſiderable tracts of land are rendered unproductive by large lakes and bogs; yet the convenience of turf for fuel is in ſome degree a compenſation. The fineſt ſcenery in Ireland is to be found in Kerry, Fermanagh, Wicklow, and Waterford. Next to theſe may be claſſed the preſent county, as it abounds with lakes, the banks of which are exceedingly beautiful.

tiful. The ſubſtratum being limeſtone, the verdure of the fields is remarkably fine, and many of the hills are covered with wood. The principal rivers are the *Shannon*, *Inny*, and *Broſna*.

Mullingar is the name of the county town; *Athlone* is divided by the Shannon, part being in this county and part in Roſcommon, but neither place contains any thing remarkable.

WEXFORD.

BOUNDED on the north by Wicklow, on the eaſt and ſouth by the ſea, on the weſt by Waterford and Kilkenny, and on the north-weſt by Carlow. Its ſurface is 934 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Gorey*, *Scarewalſh*, *Bantry*, *Ballagheen*, *Shelmaleire*, *Shelburne*, *Bargie*, and *Forth*. The number of houſes is computed at about 23,000, and of inhabitants at 149,500.

This county cannot be called hilly or mountainous, except on the borders of Carlow and Wicklow; yet it contains a large proportion of coarſe cold land, and ſtiff clay: ſome parts, however, are of a lighter ſoil, and better adapted to cultivation. It is watered on the weſtern ſide by the Barrow. Being deſtitute of limeſtone, it aſſumes an appearance very different from ſome of the other counties, but it poſſeſſes the great advantage of the Slaney, one of the moſt beautiful of the Iriſh rivers, running through its centre. This river, although it abounds with magnificent and romantic views, and deſerves as much to be celebrated as the Suir and the Blackwater, is little viſited by travellers.

Wexford, the county town, has given its name to the ſhire. It is a ſea-port with a large and beautiful harbour, in St. George's Channel; but the water is not deep enough to admit large veſſels: much woollen cloth is manufactured in the town and neighbourhood. The town contains ſix pariſhes: it was built by the Danes; and the firſt forces from England, which attempted the conqueſt of Ireland, landed there. In the barony of Forth, adjoining to Wexford, are ſaid to be the remains of an ancient colony, planted by Henry the Second. Theſe people retain their native language, manners, and many ſingular cuſtoms to this day. They intermarry among themſelves, and have intermixed little or none with the natives. They are remarkably induſtrious, cleanly to an extreme, and poſſeſs great ſimplicity of manners.

Wicklow.

The county of Wicklow is ſituated immediately ſouth of Dublin, by which county and part of the county of Kildare it is bounded on the north; on the eaſt it is bounded by St. George's Channel; by the county of Wexford on the ſouth; and on the weſt by the county of Kildare, and part of the counties of Dublin and Carlow. It extends from north to ſouth thirty-two Iriſh, or forty and a half Engliſh miles; and from eaſt to weſt twenty-ſix Iriſh, or thirty-three Engliſh miles, It is divided into the baronies of *Arklow*, *Newcaſtle*, *Half Rathdown*, *Ballinacor*, *Two half Baronies of Talbotſtown*, *Half Barony Shilelagh*; contains fifty-eight pariſhes, and about 11,550 houſes, and 58,000 inhabitants.

A vaſt tract of mountains, compoſing almoſt the whole of the barony of Ballinacor, and a great part of the upper half barony of Talbotſtown, completely divides the eaſtern part of the county, extending along the ſea-coaſt, from the weſtern part adjoining the counties of Carlow, Dublin, and Kildare, ſo that the intercourſe is almoſt wholly cut off between the inhabitants of theſe diſtricts. To this may be added the remote ſituation of Shillelagh from either; forming natural diviſions very diſtinct, ſtrongly marked, and as different from each other in general circumſtances as if they were parts of ſeparate and diſtinct counties. This circumſtance of theſe rugged central mountains, with the fertile borders to the eaſt, weſt, and ſouth, has made the county of Wicklow be compared to a frize cloak with a lace border, not unaptly denoting the manufacture, with which the mountainous part did abound, and pointing out the line of extending improvement into thoſe now almoſt deſolate wilds. The mountains of this county, which occupy ſo great a portion of its ſurface, are relieved by vales of exquiſite beauty, affording ſpace for ſome of the moſt delightful ſeats that can be imagined. Among theſe the Dargle is particularly celebrated, and a deſcription is given by Mr. Wakefield. The name, he ſays, is a corruption of the Iriſh word *dar*, which ſignifies an oak, and *gle*, which denotes a glen, and this name appears exceedingly natural, for the ſides of this chaſm are covered with oaks, which form a conſiderable addition to its embelliſhments. A mountain ſtream tumbling over its rugged bed, proceeds along the bottom of it, running down from the waterfall with wonderful rapidity. At a particular ſpot, called the "Lover's Leap," the view is truly picturesque and aſtoniſhing, both by its extent and the

delightful ſcenery of the woods beneath. On looking to the right, is ſeen the domain of Powerſcourt, a park extending from this ſtation to the waterfall, (360 feet in height,) a diſtance of four miles, conſiſting of ground thrown into uneven and varied forms, and richly planted with trees and ſhrubs of every kind, which exhibit the moſt luxuriant growth. Glens lined with hanging woods, and lawns here and there interſperſed, appear in ſeveral parts of this lengthened proſpect, affording ſo many charms that the eye lingers over them with delight, and turns from them with reluctance. The manſion, a noble edifice, conſtructed of granite, is ſeen emboſomed in trees; and the proſpect behind it compoſed of mountains riſing above each other in ſucceſſion, their ſummits of different ſhapes and various ſhades of colour, forming a broken outline, which permits the blueneſs of the ſky to be ſeen in the intervals between them, gives a grandeur to the whole ſcene, and preſents a moſt ſtriking contraſt with the verdure and other tints of the immediate fore-ground. To conceive a correct idea of the beauties of this truly romantic glen is impoſſible unleſs it be ſeen. On looking toward the left it ſeems to be overtopped by a mountain, and the proſpect is here cloſed by a diſtant view of the ocean. It has the advantage alſo of being ſurrounded by the pleaſure grounds of Lord Monk, thoſe of Mr. Howard, and the ornamented grounds of Mr. Grattan at Tinnehinch. The two principal rivers of this county are the *Liffey*, and the *Ovoca*, which in part of its courſe is called the *Avon*. There are alſo the *Slaney*, the *Inniſkerry*, the *Dargle*, the *Vartrey*, the *Avonmore*, and *Avonbeg*, the *Aghrim*, the two *Derrys*, the *Tinahely*, the *Deerin*, and one or two more.

In the general deſcription of Wicklow, mention muſt be made of the once celebrated prodigy, the gold mine. Its hiſtory is given by Mr. Fraſer, in his ſurvey of the county. Speaking of the copper mines near Ballymurtagh and Kilcaſhell, he proceeds: "It is in this vicinity that the extraordinary circumſtance has occurred of native gold being found, and which has excited much curioſity and attention. Mr. Graham of Ballycooge, who lives near the ſpot, on which the gold was diſcovered, informed me that about 35 years * ago, a ſmall piece of gold was found in the ſtream, about the ſize of the head of a braſs nail. This ſet many perſons on the ſearch to try, if any more could be found, and he related to me an entertaining account of a ſchoolmaſter in the neighbourhood, who was ſo poſſeſſed with the idea of gold to be found there in great quantities, that he uſed to go out in the

* Mr. Fraſer publiſhed in 1801.

night

night in ſearch of it, when the ſchool boys played a variety of tricks to the poor man; an account of which formed the foundation of Mr. O'Keefe's little piece, called the Wicklow Gold Mines. Mr. Graham, however, aſſured me he did not believe that there was any of it to any conſiderable amount found from that period until the end of Auguſt 1796, when a man croſſing the brook found a piece of gold about half an ounce weight in the ſtream. This was about the 24th Auguſt, and immediately the country people began to make workings in ſearch of the gold, which was continued until the 15th of October, when poſſeſſion was taken of the ground by a party of the Kildare militia, by an order from government, on which the great concourſe of people, who were buſily engaged in endeavouring to obtain a ſhare of the treaſure, immediately deſiſted from their labour, and peaceably retired to their homes. Mr. Graham who was preſent all the time, and purchaſed a conſiderable quantity of gold to the amount of above 700*l.*, from the country people, told me, that according to the beſt calculation there was upwards of 10,000*l.* Iriſh paid to the country people for the gold found and ſold on the ſpot; the average price paid for which was 3*l.* 15*s.* an ounce, which makes it that 2,666 ounces were found in that ſhort ſpace of time.

"The workings, which the peaſantry undertook, are on the north-eaſt ſide of the mountains Croughan, Kinſkelly, within the barony of Arklow, on the lands of Lord Carysfort, wherein the Earl of Ormond claims a right to the minerals, in conſequence, as I have been informed, of a grant in the reign of Henry II. by Prince John, during his command of his father's forces in Ireland; which grant was renewed and confirmed by Queen Elizabeth, and again by Charles II. The ſummit of the mountain is the boundary between the counties of Wicklow and Wexford, ſeven Engliſh miles weſt from Arklow, ten to the ſouth-weſt from Rathdrum, and ſix ſouth-weſterly from the Cronebane mines, by eſtimation about 600 yards above the level of the ſea; it extends W. by N. and E. by S. and ſtretches away the north-eaſtward to Ballycooge, where ſhafts have formerly been ſunk, and ſome copper and ſome magnetic iron have been found; and thence to the north-eaſt extends a tract of mineral country eight miles in length, running through the lands of Ballymurtagh, Ballygahan, Tigrony, Cronebane, Conery, and Kilmacoe, in all which veins of copper ore are found, and terminating at the ſlate quarry at Balnabarny. On the higheſt part of the mountain are bare rocks, being a variety of argillite, whoſe joints range N. N. E. and S. S. W. hading to the S. S. W. and in one part include a rib of quartz three

inches wide, which follows the direction of the ſtrata. Around the rocks for ſome diſtance is found ground covered with heath. Deſcending to the eaſtward, there is ſpringy ground abounding with coarſe graſs; and below a very extenſive bog, in which the turf is from four to nine feet thick, and beneath it, in the ſubſtratum of clay, are many angular fragments of quartz, containing chlorite and ferruginous earth: below the turbary the ground falls with a quick deſcent, and three ravines are obſerved, the central one of which is the moſt conſiderable; and has been worn by torrents, which derive their ſource from the bog; the others are formed lower down the mountain by ſprings, which uniting with the former, below their junction the gold has been found. The ſmaller have not water ſufficient to waſh away the incumbent clay, ſo as to lay bare their ſubſtratum; and their beds contain only gravel, conſiſting of quartz with chlorite, and other ſubſtances, of which the mountain conſiſts. The great ravine preſents a more intereſting aſpect. The water in its deſcent has in a very ſhort diſtance from the bog entirely carried off the clay, and conſiderably worn down the ſubſtrata of the rock, which it has laid open to inſpection. Deſcending along the bed of the great ravine, whoſe general courſe is to the eaſtward, a yellow argillaceous ſhiſtus is firſt ſeen. The lamina are much ſhattered and are very thin, have a ſlight hade to S. S. W. and range E. S. E. and W. N. W. Included within this ſhiſt is a vein of compact barren quartz, about three feet wide, and another about nine inches wide, having the ſame range as the former, and hading to the northward, conſiſting of quartz, including ferruginous earth. Lower down is a vein of compact aggregate ſubſtance, apparently compounded of quartz, ochraceous earth, chert, minute particles of mica, and ſome little argillite. Lower down, the blue ſhiſt becomes more compact, though ſtill laminated; the ground leſs ſteep becomes ſpringy, is encloſed, and the ravine ſhallower, has depoſited a conſiderable quantity of clay, ſand, and gravel. Following the courſe of the ravine, or, as it now may be more properly called, the brook, we arrive at the road, which leads to Arklow; here is a ford, and the brook has the Iriſh name *aghat enaought*, (the river that drowned the old man,) hence it deſcends to the Aghrim river, juſt above its confluence with that from Rathdrum; which after their junction take the general name of the Ovoca. The lands of Ballinvally are to the ſouthward, and the lands of Colligore to the northward of the ford, where the blue ſhiſtus, whoſe joints are nearly vertical, is ſeen ranging E. N. E. and W. S. W. Before the workings begun, the brook had formed its channel down to the ſurface of the rock, and between ſix and ſeven feet wide; but in time of floods extended itſelf entirely over

the valley. Reſearches have been made for the gold, amidſt the ſand and gravel, along the run of the brook for near half a mile in length; but it is only about 150 yards above, and about 200 yards below the ford, that the trials have been attended with ſucceſs. Within that ſpace, the valley is tolerably level, and the banks of the brook have not more than five feet of ſand and gravel above the rock. Added to this, it takes a ſmall turn to the ſouthward, and conſequently the rude ſurfaces of the ſhiſtous rock in ſome degree croſs its courſe, and form natural impediments to the particles of gold being carried farther down the ſtream. Beſides, the rude manner in which the country people worked, ſeldom enabled them to penetrate the rock. Their method was, to turn the courſe of the water, wherever they deemed it neceſſary, and then, with any implements they could procure, to dig holes down to the rock; they then waſhed in bowls and ſieves, the ſand and gravel they threw out, in order to ſeparate the particles of gold which it contained, and from the ſlovenly and haſty way in which their operations were performed, much gold probably eſcaped their ſearch.

"The gold is of a bright yellow colour, perfectly malleable, the ſpecific gravity of an apparently clean piece 19,000; a ſpecimen aſſayed by Mr. Weavor, at Cronebane, in the moiſt way, produced from 24 grains $22\frac{58}{100}$ grains of pure gold, and $1\frac{42}{100}$ of ſilver. Some of the gold is intimately blended with and adherent to quartz; ſome of it is ſaid to be found united to the fine grained iron ſtone, but the major part of it was entirely free from the matrix. Every piece was more or leſs rounded on the edges, of various weights, forms, and ſizes, from the moſt minute particles up to ounces; only two pieces are known to have been found of ſuperior weight, and one is five and the other twenty-two ounces. In the end of 1796, or the beginning of the year following, government determined to continue theſe workings, and iſſue a ſum of money for that purpoſe, keeping a ſeparate account in the exchequer of the receipts, that it might be given to whoever might be found to be entitled thereto, and accordingly iſſued 1000*l.* to Mr. Mills, Mr. Weavor, and Mr. King, as commiſſioners for that purpoſe. The operations of the commiſſioners were put a ſtop to by the rebellion breaking out in May 1798, at which time the money iſſued by government was repaid, and a ſum in hand, with which the workings have again been renewed in September laſt. The operations have been confined to rewaſhing the ſand and ground formerly gone over by the peaſantry, and in opening the ground in various places over blue ſchiſtoſe, proceeding gradually towards the hill. The operations are

performed by working the ſand and ſoil in buddles, as in the tin ſtream works in Cornwall, afterwards in ſieves, until they make uſe of fine linen and muſlin, ſo that no particle of the gold eſcapes. The hope, however, of obtaining any conſiderable quantity of gold from this ſource ſeems utterly to have failed. The ſkill of the commiſſioners employed, and the prudence of their proceedings are undoubted; but, as Mr. Wakefield ſtates, every rivulet belonging to the mountain has been carefully ſearched, and a ſmall quantity has been obtained from each. Trenches were alſo dug ſo as to interſect the rock in every direction. The gold collected was mixed with grains of quartz, and as the ſame mountain furniſhes iron ore, of which it exhibits conſiderable veins, it was concluded that it might contain alſo one or more veins of gold; a ſhaft has therefore been ſunk to a conſiderable depth, but as yet without ſucceſs, and the beſt judges have given up every expectation of the mountain containing any gold worth the expence of extracting it."

The towns, *Wicklow*, *Bleſſington*, and *Carysfort*, have no claims to particular notice; *Baltinglaſs*, ſituated on the river Slaney, is ſaid to have been the grand *Beal-tinne* of the ſouthern ſtates of Leinſter; and there are ſtill remaining in its neighbourhood a number of Druidic altars. A parliament was formerly holden at Baltinglaſs, as alſo the aſſizes; it has alſo a venerable caſtle.

Province of Munster.

Munster, the moſt ſouthern province of Ireland, is bounded on the north by Leinſter and Connaught, and on the eaſt, weſt, and ſouth by the Ocean. Its ancient name was Mumhan, derived from the old Celtic *Mamman*, or the county of the Great Mother, and in latter ages it was divided into Deſmond, or South Munſter; Ormond, or Eaſt Munſter; and Thomond, or North Munſter. It comprehends 9,276 Engliſh ſquare miles, and contains ſix counties, viz. *Clare*, *Cork*, *Kerry*, *Limerick*, *Tipperary*, and *Waterford*.

Clare.

This county, bounded on the north by the county of Galway, on the eaſt by Tipperary, on the ſouth by Limerick and Kerry, and on the weſt by the ſea, is divided into the baronies of *Burrin*, *Tullagh*, *Bunratty Iſlands*, *Ibrichan*, *Clanderlaw*, *Movarta*, and *Inchiquin*,

Inchiquin, and contains 1,125 Engliſh ſquare miles, making 79 pariſhes, about 17,400 houſes, and 96,000 ſouls.

The ſea coaſt by which it is bordered conſiſts of a chain of baſaltic rocks, on which account ſailors diſtinguiſh it by the epithet of "iron bound." Toward the centre of it an arm of the ſea, or rather of the Shannon, runs off to Ennis, and is known by the name of the Fergus river. The county is remarkably bare of wood, and abounds ſo much with lime-ſtone, that whole tracts are entirely beds of it; the ſurface even has the appearance of a maſs of ſtone. The banks of the Fergus and Shannon are bordered with rich marſhes, which afford excellent paſture, and the former preſent ſome romantic ſcenery worthy of attention. Some parts of the county are mountainous, which, however, feed a great number of cattle and ſheep; while the more level grounds are very fertile, and yield very good crops of corn and hay.

Ennis, anciently *Innis Clanruada*, the capital of the county, is a conſiderable town but not regularly built, ſituate on the navigable river *Fergus*. It has ſix poſt days in the week. Here is an excellent ſchool, on the foundation of the late *Eraſmus Smith*'s charities. The magiſtrates are a provoſt, vice-provoſt, and town-clerk.

CORK.

CORK, the largeſt county in the iſland, contains 2,990 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is bounded on the north by the county of Limerick, on the eaſt by Tipperary and Waterford, on the ſouth, ſouth-eaſt, and ſouth-weſt by the ſea, and on the weſt by the county of Kerry. It comprizes the baronies of *Duhallow*, *Orrery* and *Kilmore*, *Armory* and *Earmoy*, *Condons*, or *Clangibbon*, *Kilnatalloon*, *Imokilly*, *Barrymore*, *Barrets*, *Corklib*, *Kinalea*, *Kinalmeaky*, *Muſkerry*, *Carbery*, *Bantry* and *Bear*; which form 269 pariſhes, having 76,739 houſes, and 416,000 ſouls.

As this county comprehends a wide range of ſea coaſt, with an extenſive tract of country, it affords great abundance, and variety of ſcenery. All the ſouth-weſt part is formed by a ridge of mountains, which riſes to a conſiderable height, and runs out into the ſea. Few portions of the county can properly be called flat, and though moſt of the weſtern ſide is rough and uneven, it is not ſo rugged as to prevent the uſe of the plough, or impede cultivation.

The ſcenery in many parts of this county is highly extolled for its beauty. Glangarriff is particularly commended by

Mr. Wakefield, who, ſpeaking of the houſe of a gentleman admirably ſituated for commanding all the charms of the ſcene, ſays, "It ſtands at the edge of the harbour, which is one of the fineſt indentations of Bantry Bay, ſo perfect in its form, and ſo depreſſed at the bottom of the lofty and extenſive mountains by which it is ſurrounded, that it looks like a baſon beneath you, and though it appears ſmall to the eye at ſome diſtance, it is not ſo in reality. The mountains are ſeparated, rough, and craggy; though inferior in height to M'Gillycuddy's Reeks in Kerry, which hang over the upper lake of Killarney, they poſſeſs, in a conſiderable degree, a terrific grandeur of the ſame kind. This place is beautiful in the true ſenſe of the word, as it is not indebted to art for any of its embelliſhments. The eaſtern ſide of the harbour, on which this houſe is built, is well planted with arbutus, holly, and birch, growing in the moſt luxuriant manner: at every turn you perceive a glen, and each ſtep preſents new, varied, and enchanting ſcenery, the beauty of which is ſet off to great advantage by the ſight of the immenſe mountains above, and thoſe which ſurround you on the oppoſite ſide of the harbour, and which being barren and untenanted, have in their aſpect ſomething uncommonly wild. The oak and the birch do not attain here a large ſize, but the different tints produced by their foliage add greatly to the richneſs and variety of the ſcene. Geraniums, myrtles, and many of the moſt tender plants, remain out of doors the whole year, under the ſhelter of a rock, which protects them from the cutting ſharpneſs of the north-eaſterly winds. The mildneſs of the climate has no ſmall influence on the ſcenery of this delightful ſpot, as the deciduous trees remain ſtripped of their leaves only during a very ſhort period of the year. The moſt captivating features of the proſpect immediately round the harbour, where the woody glens are ſeen to the greateſt advantage, are by this genial temperature much improved, and a ſort of almoſt perpetual bloom and verdure are maintained." He recommends to every traveller whoſe object may be to ſee the romantic, beautiful, or ſublime ſcenes of nature, to pay particular attention to this part of Ireland. "Killarney," he adds, "is ſpoken of as the ultimatum of every thing worth viſiting in the United Empire; but highly as I think of it, though gratified and delighted by its enchanting and extraordinary ſcenery, I cannot help ſaying, that I conſider Glangarriff, and the adjacent country, if not exactly its rival, at any rate a place of uncommon beauty; intereſting in no ſmall degree; poſſeſſing charms various and ſtriking; embracing ſcenes ſuited to almoſt every taſte; and, upon the whole, ſuch as muſt always arreſt the notice and excite the admiration of thoſe

thoſe who ſeek for nature in her moſt favoured retreats. The mountains exhibit as much of the terrific in their character and ſhapes, and want nothing but a greater height to render them as celebrated as of Kerry. But though theſe mountains have leſs elevation, the wide expanſe of water, and the views connected with ſo noble a bay as that of Bantry, make up for this defect, and create an intereſt, which thoſe who feel it cannot well deſcribe."

The waterfall at Hungra Hill, near Roſs-Mac-Owen is one of the largeſt and higheſt in this kingdom, being plainly viſible from the town of Bantry, at leaſt 14 miles diſtant. The water is collected from various ſmall rivulets and ſprings, forming a large lake on the top of a vaſt, high, rocky, and almoſt perpendicular mountain, which is at leaſt 700 yards above the level of the Bay of Bantry. The water caſcades from the top of this mountain in a beautiful ſheet at leaſt ten yards broad, which expands as it falls; about half the height of the mountain it daſhes perpendicularly on a prominent rock, from whence a miſt ariſes almoſt a third part of the hill, and, refracting the rays of the ſun, produces a very beautiful effect. Hence the water falls from rock to rock, till it has paſſed the rugged declivity of Hungra Hill; and before it gains the ocean it has another fall, caſcading in an arch over a lower hill. This waterfall is indeed one of the moſt conſiderable in Europe in winter, but in ſummer there is no water.

The principal rivers are the *Blackwater*, the *Lee*, the *Bandon*, and the *Kenmare*.

Cork, the capital, is a county within itſelf, and the ſecond city in Ireland. It is ſuppoſed to contain about 9,000 houſes, and nearly 80,000 inhabitants, forming ſeven pariſhes. It is ſituated on an iſland in the Lee, with two large ſtone bridges over the principal branches of that river. The town has been ſo much improved and enlarged, that it is now above thrice as large as formerly, and its commerce increaſed in proportion. Several broad ſtreets have been lately added, by filling up the canals that formerly ran through the town. Its wealth ariſes from the capacious and commodious haven called the *Cove*, one of the beſt in the world: the entrance ſafe, and the capacity ſufficient for any number of ſhips, which may ride ſecure from every wind. Twelve hundred veſſels have reſorted here in a year in time of peace; and it is defended by a fort in the great iſland. Ships from all nations victual here. Veſſels of 120 tons may come up to the quay, but thoſe of burden unload at Paſſage, five miles and a half from Cork. The exportation, the largeſt in Ireland, conſiſts chiefly of beef,

beef, hides, butter, tallow, and other proviſions. It has the remains of ſeveral monaſteries, and contains two good modern hoſpitals for poor boys, beſides alms houſes, ſchools, an infirmary, exchange, and cuſtom-houſe, which, as well as the other public buildings and walks, are no great ornament to the city. The houſes are old, and far from elegant in their appearance; but the banks of the harbour are adorned with villas and plantations, preſenting a moſt agreeable and cheerful landſcape. *Cove*, or the *Cove of Cork*, is a very flouriſhing village, ſituate under a high, ſteep hill, oppoſite to which the largeſt veſſels generally anchor, and about nine miles diſtant, in a ſouth-eaſt direction, from the city.

Kinſale is ſituate on the river Bandon, at the northern extremity of a commodious and ſecure harbour, on St. George's Channel, to which it gives name; it is built on the ſide of *Compaſs Hill*, cloſe to the water's edge, and contains upward of 10,000 inhabitants. The river is navigable for large ſloops near twelve miles above the town, though a bar prevents large men of war coming into the baſon. In this port is a dock furniſhed with ſtores for the uſe of the navy. The entrance of the harbour is defended by a fort, conſtructed in the reign of Charles II., called *Charles' Fort*, and in which there is always a good garriſon.

Mallow is ſituated on the river Blackwater, one of the moſt conſiderable inland towns of the county, and much frequented on account of a ſoft and tepid ſpring (diſcovered in 1724) of the ſame nature and efficacy as the hot wells of Briſtol.

Youghall is a good ſea port, ſituate upon the river *Blackwater*, near the entrance of a bay to which it gives name, on St. George's Channel.

KERRY.

THE county of Kerry is bounded on the north by the river Shannon, on the eaſt by the counties of Limerick and Cork, on the ſouth by Cork and the ſea, and on the weſt by the ſea; about fifty-four miles from north to ſouth, and from 18 to 40 from eaſt to weſt, containing 1,763 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Iraghticonnor*, *Clanmaurice*, *Corcaguinny*, *Trughanacmy*, *Magunihy*, *Glaniroght*, *Dunkerron*, and *Iveragh*, which comprize about 19,400 houſes, and 107,000 inhabitants.

This county is full of mountains, almoſt inacceſſible, ſo that a large part of it is hardly fit for habitation or culture, conſequently but little corn is produced: grazing is more at-

tended to; and butter in conſiderable quantities is exported, as well as beef, hides, and tallow.

Tralee, the ſhire town, is built on the river Lee, which empties itſelf into a ſhallow and unſafe bay called Tralee Bay, on the Atlantic Ocean; near it is a chalybeate ſpring.

In the midſt of the mountains of this county are the celebrated and beautiful *Lakes of Killarney*. To deſcribe them adequately has been declared by all writers to be above their hopes. Mr. Young's account of them in his Tour, Vol. I. p. 440., is conſidered as moſt correct, but as it is ſpread out in the form of a diary, and blended with other matter, it is not to be tranſcribed, and could not without injury be compreſſed. Mr. Wakefield ſays, "Theſe lakes are three in number; the largeſt is called the *Lower Lake*, and occupies an area of 3,000 acres. The ſouth-weſt ſhore of this lake lies at the bottom of a majeſtic range of mountains, and the oppoſite ſhore conſiſts of a low flat tract of country in a ſtate of cultivation; but the diſtant proſpect from the other ſide is broken by a few wooded iſlands. *Mucroſs Lake*, to the ſouth, occupies 640 acres, immediately under the Turk Mountain, and on the northern ſhore of it is the domain of Mr. Herbert; but the Mucroſs ſhore of Turk Lake forms too ſtraight a line to be picturesque, and the rocks have an artificial appearance which detracts from their beauty, and renders them leſs impreſſive. I allude to the view of them from the water. The peninſula which is formed here is one of the moſt delightful places imaginable, and the proſpect from the top of the bridge which joins it to Breechen Iſland is exceedingly pleaſing. To the ſouth Mangerton and Turk in all their glory, ſinking down to the rugged point at the Eagle's Neſt, where there is a view of Glenaa, the immediate fore-ground being Breechen and Dyne's Iſlands, and beyond theſe the Lower Lake with Roſs Caſtle: Innisfallen Iſland and the town of Killarney, in the diſtant proſpect, complete the picture. The water, the mountains, and the whole ſcenery, have ſomething of a remarkably ſombre caſt; but this gloom is wonderfully relieved by the verdure of Mucroſs at one point, and the blue tint of the mountains ſtretching towards Dingle at another, both which, combined and contraſted with the other parts, produce a moſt picturesque effect. For about three miles the lakes continue with a width which gives them the appearance of a river, paſſing between the back of Turk and a large range of other mountains, which terminate at the Eagle's Neſt, till they approach the Upper Lake, an immenſe reſervoir, covering 720 acres, in a hollow between ſtupendous mountains,

mountains, the rugged, rocky, and almoſt perpendicular ſides of which may be ſaid to overhang the water. The ſcenery of this lake is of the moſt awful and extraordinary kind, ſuch as very ſeldom occurs, and on a ſcale of magnificence hardly to be equalled, except in a wild country like Switzerland. Here nature aſſumes her rougheſt and moſt terrific attire to aſtoniſh the gazing ſpectator, who, loſt amidſt wonder and ſurprize, thinks he treads enchanted ground, and while he ſcarcely knows to which ſide he ſhall direct his attention, can hardly believe that the ſcenes he ſees around him are not the effects of deluſion, or the airy phantoms of the brain, called into momentary exiſtence by the creative powers of a fervid imagination. Here rocks piled upon rocks riſe to a towering height; there one mountain rears its lofty head in ſucceſſion above another, and ſometimes a gigantic range ſeems to overhang you, forming a ſcene that may be more eaſily conceived than deſcribed. Such ſublime views cannot be beheld but with a mixed ſenſation of pleaſure and awe, and on a contemplative mind they muſt make a deep and laſting impreſſion. The higheſt mountains have been meaſured by Mr. Kirwan, who makes their height to be as follows:

	Feet.
Curranea Toohill, in Kerry, which forms M'Gillicuddy's Reeks, riſes above the level of the ocean - - -	3,405
Mangerton - - - - -	2,693"

Theſe lakes fix the attention of the traveller almoſt excluſively; but there are many other ſublime and magnificent views and ſcenes in this county.

LIMERICK.

THIS county is bounded on the north by Clare, from which it is ſeparated by the Shannon and Tipperary, on the eaſt by Tipperary, on the ſouth by Cork, and on the weſt by Kerry; forty miles from eaſt to weſt, and from ſeventeen to twenty-five from north to ſouth; containing 1,045 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the baronies of *Connello*, *Kenry*, *Limerick*, *Owneybeg*, *Coonagh*, *Clanwilliam*, *Smale*, or *Small County*, *Coſhma*, and *Coſhlea*; and has 125 pariſhes, and about 170,000 inhabitants.

Although diverſified by ſmall hills, it is not at all mountainous, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is bounded by the Gabtees, a ridge of formidable mountains, extending into Tipperary, and on the borders of Kerry, where it grows uneven,

uneven, and forms a grand amphitheatre of low but ſteep mountains, which ſtretch in a curve from Loghil to Drumcolloher. In the firſt of theſe riſes the river *Maig*, which croſſes the county and falls into the Shannon, as do many fine ſtreams by which the county is plentifully watered. In the weſtern hills are the ſources of the *Feale* and the *Gale*, which run weſtward through Kerry; and of the *Blackwater*, which flows in a contrary direction through the county of Cork. None of the views here exhibit fine ſcenery. The cabins of the cotters make a moſt wretched appearance, and bear evident marks of poverty. The greater part of the county conſiſts of rich graſs lands kept in a ſlovenly manner, and divided by earthen banks, but without trees.

The city of *Limerick*, which is a county within itſelf, is ſituated on the Shannon, and contains ſix pariſhes, in which are about 40,000 inhabitants. It is compoſed of the *Iriſh* and *Engliſh* towns; the latter ſtanding on the King's Iſland, which is formed by the river Shannon, and which admits ſhips of 500 tons burden to its quays. While fortified it was conſidered the ſtrongeſt place in Ireland, but ſince its fortifications have been diſmantled, its proſperity has rapidly increaſed, and it now enjoys a very extenſive export trade, particularly in proviſions.

Tipperary.

Tipperary is bounded on the north-eaſt by King's County, on the eaſt by Queen's County and Kilkenny, on the ſouth by Waterford, and on the weſt by Limerick, Clare, and Galway; fifty-two miles in length, and from twelve to thirty-one in breadth; in area 1,591 Engliſh miles. It has the baronies of *Lower Ormond*, *Ormond*, *Arra*, *Owen*, *Ikerin*, *Ileagh*, *Eliogurty*, *Killnalongurty*, *Killnamanna*, *Clanwilliam*, *Middlethird*, *Slewardagh*, *Compſey*, *Iffa* and *Offa*; in which are 24 pariſhes, 30,700 houſes, and 169,000 inhabitants.

This county preſents extenſive tracts of uncultivated mountains, but it has alſo abundance of fertile plains, with a calcareous ſubſtratum, which form as rich land as is to be met with in any part of the empire. It is more adapted for the feeding of cattle than for cultivation by the plough; notwithſtanding which, much wheat is raiſed in the ſouth part, and nearly fifty boulting mills are counted on the different rivers, a much greater number than is found in any other county. The principal river is the *Suir*, beſides which there are abundance of ſmaller rivers and brooks. In Clonmell both the linen and woollen

woollen manufactures flouriſh: near the place called Silver Mines, are mines of lead, with a mixture of ſilver; but the principal productions are cattle, ſheep, butter, flour, the laſt particularly for Dublin.

Clonmell, the county town, is ſituated on the navigable river *Suir*, over which there is a bridge of twenty arches, divided into two parts by a ſmall iſland in the river, on which houſes are built: the tide flows a little way above the town. Here is a charter ſchool for 60 boys. Clonmell gave birth (on the 24th of November 1713) to the celebrated Laurence Sterne. This town is very ancient, having been erected before the invaſion of the Danes: it was formerly defended by a ſtrong wall. Oliver Cromwell met with greater reſiſtance here than in any other part of the kingdom: he demoliſhed the caſtles and fortifications, of which now only the ruins remain.

WATERFORD

Is bounded on the north by Kilkenny and Tipperary, on the eaſt by Wexford, on the ſouth by the ſea, and on the weſt by Cork; forty-two miles from eaſt to weſt, and from eight to twenty-two broad, from north to ſouth forming 710 Engliſh ſquare miles. It is divided into the following baronies, *Glanchiry*, *Decies*, *Coſhmore*, *Upperthird*, and *Middlethird*, and contains thirty-four pariſhes, about 18,796 houſes, and 110,000 inhabitants.

The country is in general mountainous; in ſome parts 720 yards above the level of the ſea. On the ſides of this chain are ſome frightful rocks and precipices, and on the ſummits of moſt of the mountains are large heaps of ſtones, of great ſize, ſuppoſed to have been the ruins of ſome buildings, but without the intervention of mortar or cement. Among the mountains are four conſiderable loughs or lakes, in which are found trout and char. The ſoil is fertile, and even on the ſides of the mountains is found good feed for cattle. On the north it is watered by the *Suir*, and on the weſt by the *Blackwater*, and two ſuch noble eſtuaries are ſeldom ſeen.

The city of *Waterford* ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the river *Suir*, which is embanked by a noble quay, extending the whole length of the town. Veſſels of great burthen can come up to this quay, but the largeſt ſhips generally lie a few miles lower down. A flouriſhing commerce with England and other countries is the happy conſequence of ſuch a ſituation. The principal articles of export are beef, pork, butter, grain, and linen. Packet boats are alſo eſtabliſhed between this port and Milford

Milford Haven. As there is no bridge over the *Suir* below Carrick, the only communication with the county of Kilkenny is by a ferry, an inconvenience to which the great depth and breadth of the river has hitherto compelled the inhabitants to ſubmit. This city is about twelve miles diſtant from the ſea. The harbour runs almoſt twelve miles up the country, nearly in a ſtraight line, and is all the way deep and clear. This city is of conſiderable antiquity; it was built in 879, but deſtroyed in 981. It was conſiderably enlarged by Earl Strongbow, in 1171; and ſtill further in the reign of Henry VII., who granted divers privileges to the citizens. Richard II. landed and was crowned here in 1399. In 1690, James II. embarked from hence for France, after the battle of the Boyne. William III. reſided here twice, and confirmed its privileges. It contains ſeven pariſhes, and the inhabitants are computed at about 35,000. It has a charter ſchool for 60 boys, and ſeveral other charity ſchools and humane foundations well ſupported: many of the public edifices are extremely elegant. The private dwellings are generally modern, and with the other improvements of the city keep pace with the increaſe of its opulence.

Dungarvan, anciently *Achad Garbain*, is ſituate on a bay to which it gives name, on St. George's Channel, and is one of the greateſt fiſhing towns in Ireland. The admiralty of the harbour is veſted in the ſovereign. The caſtle was veſted in the crown, by act of parliament, in the fourth year of the reign of Henry the Eighth. An aqueduct has been conſtructed here by parliamentary encouragement, for ſupplying the town with freſh water, which is conducted for ſome miles from the river *Phiniſk*.

LANGUAGE.

In all theſe counties the Engliſh language is ſpoken more or leſs; from ſome, the original Iriſh has altogether diſappeared. It continues to be ſpoken in Louth, Meath, and Weſtmeath; in Dublin, Kildare, Wicklow, and in the King's and Queen's Counties, very few; but in the ſouth-weſt part of Carlow, a conſiderable proportion ſpeak Iriſh; in Kilkenny it prevails greatly; in Wexford, it is very little uſed in the ſouth-eaſt part of the county, but is pretty general in the north-weſt. In all the counties of Munſter, the Iriſh language prevails, if we except the large towns, their immediate neighbourhoods, and ſome of the country along the coaſt. It is more prevalent in Connaught than in the weſt of Ireland: in this province the gentlemen find it eſſential to

to acquire the language, in order to be able to deal with the peaſantry without an interpreter. In Ulſter there is a great proportion of Iriſh ſpeakers. Cavan and Monaghan contain many; Tyrone about half its inhabitants; Donegal more than half; Armagh and Down, a few; Antrim, a few along the eaſtern coaſt; Derry, a few in the mountains to the ſouth-weſt; Fermanagh, ſcarcely any.

Soil. The ſurface of Ireland affords no great diverſity of ſoil. Sand is never ſeen, except on the ſhore; chalk is unknown, and ſuch tenacious clays, as in Oxfordſhire, Eſſex, and High Suffolk, are never met with. Such kinds of flint as are common in Kent, Surrey, and Hertfordſhire are ſcarce; but almoſt every county produces limeſtone or calcareous gravel. The ſpace occupied by the mountains and bogs, when compared with the whole area, makes a great diminution in the productive acres of the kingdom. In the north, the quantity of rich ſoil is not very conſiderable; yet, rich valleys are to be found in every county. A great portion of the ſoil throws out a luxuriant herbage, ſpringing up from a calcareous ſub-ſoil, without any conſiderable depth. Some places exhibit the richeſt loam, and where ſuch ſoil occurs, its fertility is conſpicuous. On the banks of the Fergus and Shannon, the land is of a different kind, but equally productive, although the ſurface preſents the appearance of marſh. Theſe diſtricts are called "*the Caucaſſes.*" The ſubſtratum is a blue ſilt, depoſited by the ſea, which ſeems to partake of the qualities of the upper ſtratum; for this land can be injured by no depth of ploughing. In the counties of Limerick and Tipperary there is another kind of rich land, conſiſting of a dark, friable, dry, ſandy loam, which, if preſerved in a clean ſtate, would throw out corn ſeveral years in ſucceſſion. It is equally well adapted to grazing and tillage. In Ireland there is not much land ſufficiently light, though abundance of it is luxuriant, to be what is known in England under the name of "turnip lands."

One of the moſt remarkable diviſions of ſoil is that formed by the Barrow. To the weſt of that river limeſtone is met with in abundance, while it is no where to be found throughout the counties of Wexford and Wicklow. Independently of the Caucaſſes, the richeſt ſoil in Ireland is to be found in the counties of Tipperary, Limerick, Roſcommon, Longford, and Meath. Some parts of the county of Cork are uncommonly fertile; and, upon the whole, Ireland may be conſidered as affording land of an excellent quality, although it may be an exaggeration to ſay, it is decidedly acre for acre richer than England.

Minerals.

MINERALS. The *earths* found in Ireland are marl, yellow and red ochre, and one reſembling and poſſeſſing ſome of the properties of fuller's earth. Potter's, and other clays, fit for making bricks and coarſe crockery, and tobacco pipe clay, with ſome other ſpecimens, are produced in various counties; as are ſeveral uſeful kinds of *ſand*.

Under the head of *ſtones* are reckoned granite, which is ſuppoſed to be the ſubſtratum of all the land; ſandſtone, free-ſtone, the yellow mica, called fireſtone, and uſed for making hearths, breccia, of which millſtones are made, a ſilicious ſchiſt uſed for building, flagſtones, ſlate, limeſtone, marble, white, black, and of various colours, ſiderocalcite, whetſtone, ſpar, alabaſter, calcareous petrifactions, lapis Hibernicus, or Iriſh ſlate, (formerly uſed in medicine, and containing vitriol,) jaſper, the chryſtals called kerryſtones, and many others of various colours, amethyſts, and ſome other ſpecimens, including the white cornelian.

It is, however, juſtly obſerved by Mr. Wakefield, that among the productions of Ireland which may be claſſed under this head, none ſeem to have a greater claim to attention than that of baſaltes, not on account of any uſeful purpoſe to which it is applied, but becauſe nature preſents it under the moſt awful forms, being ſometimes piled up in immenſe ſtructures, of ſtupendous height and extent, where columns of it are arranged in various directions, and with as much regularity as if they had been arranged by the hand of the artiſt. It deſerves conſiderable notice alſo, on account of the diſpute to which it has given riſe between two claſſes of philoſophers, the Plutonians and the Neptunians, the former of whom aſſert, that it is indebted for its origin to ſubterranean fire, while the latter maintain that it is the reſult of depoſition, and conſequently the production of water. The queſtion does not appear to have been determined. The baſaltic diſtrict occupies a range of coaſt ſtretched out from the eſtuary of Carrickfergus on the one hand, to Lough Foyle on the other, and extends inland to the ſouthern ſhores of Lough Neagh. Throughout this whole country the baſaltes is frequently ſeen in thick beds, and in this ſtate it often ſeparates into looſe blocks, reſembling that foſſil known in Sweden by the name of *trap*; but, for the moſt part, it is entirely amorphous, and diſpoſed in large maſſes, which do not ſplit or ſeparate in any aſſignable direction. At that ſingular phenomenon, called the Giant's Cauſeway, and many other places, it appears in large pillars, ſtanding perpendicular to the horizon; but in ſome of the capes, and particularly near Uſhet, in the Iſle of Raghery, they lie in an oblique poſition, and at the Doon point, in the ſame iſland, and along

the Ballintoy ſhore, they form a variety of regular curves. The little point of Doon is indeed exceedingly curious, as it exhibits pillars perpendicular, horizontal, and bending.

THE GIANT'S CAUSEWAY. The Cauſeway itſelf is generally deſcribed as a mole or quay projecting from the baſe of a ſteep promontory ſome hundred feet into the ſea, and formed of perpendicular pillars of baſaltes, which, ſtanding in contact with each other, exhibit a ſort of polygonal pavement, ſomewhat ſimilar in appearance to a ſolid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular priſms of various denominations, from three to eight ſides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others together.

On minute inſpection, each pillar is found to be ſeparable into ſeveral joints, the articulation of which is remarkably neat and compact, the convex termination of one joint always meeting with a concave ſocket in the next; and beſides this, the angles of one frequently project over thoſe of the other; ſo that they are completely locked together, and can rarely be ſeparated without fracturing the parts.

The ſides of each column are unequal among themſelves, but the contiguous angles of adjoining pillars always make up four right ones; ſo that there are no void ſpaces among the baſaltes, the ſurface of the Cauſeway preſenting a regular and compact pavement of polygon ſtones.

In regard to ſituation, the pillars at the Cauſeway ſtand on the level of the beach, and even under the ſurface of the ocean, whence they may be traced through every degree of elevation, to the ſummit of the higheſt grounds in the neighbourhood; as at the old fort of Dunmull, and on the top of Croaghmore, ſix or ſeven hundred feet above the level of the ſea.

With reſpect to ſize, the perfect pillars are uſually about a foot and a half in breadth, and thirty in length. Among the imperfect and irregular cryſtallizations found throughout the country, ſmall priſms ſometimes occur, which do not exceed a few inches in breadth, and which in length are proportionally diminutive. In many of the capes and hills the ſize of the pillars is much larger than at the Cauſeway. At Fairhead they are of gigantic magnitude, often exceeding five feet in breadth, and two hundred in length.

Of theſe vaſt columns the paſſage uſually called *Fhir Leith*, or the Grey Man's Path, in the promontory of Fairhead, exhibits a magnificent example. It is a deep chaſm, dividing the ſolid promontory in two. The upper termination of this ſingular paſſage is narrow, and barred over, as it were, by the fragment of a pillar, which having fallen acroſs the fiſſure,

remains ſuſpended at an elevated ſituation. As one deſcends, the chaſm widens and becomes more important; its ſolid walls of rude and threatening columns increaſe in height, regularity, and magnificence, until they attain to a perpendicular elevation of two hundred and twenty feet, conducting the paſſenger at length to the intereſting heap of maſſive ruins which forms the baſe of the promontory itſelf, and exhauſts the fury of the impetuous northern ocean.

The leading features of this whole coaſt are the two great promontories of Benjore and Fairhead, which ſtand at the diſtance of eight miles from each other. The former lies about ſeven miles weſt of Bally-caſtle, and is generally deſcribed by ſeamen as an extenſive headland, running out from the coaſt a conſiderable way into the ſea; but ſtrictly ſpeaking, it is made up of a number of leſſer capes and bays, each having its own proper name, the whole of which forms what ſeamen denominate the Head of Benjore.

The capes are compoſed of different ranges of pillars, and a great number of ſtrata; which, from the abruptneſs of the coaſt, are extremely conſpicuous, and form an unrivalled pile of natural architecture, where all the regularity and elegance of art is united to the wild magnificence of nature.

The moſt perfect of theſe capes is called Pleaſkin. Its ſummit is covered with a thin graſſy ſod, under which lies the natural baſaltic rock, having generally a hard ſurface, ſomewhat cracked and ſhivered; at the depth of ten or twelve feet from the ſummit, this rock begins to aſſume a columnar tendency, and forms a range of maſſy pillars of baſaltes, which ſtand perpendicular to the horizon, preſenting on the ſharp face of the promontory the appearance of a magnificent gallery or colonade upwards of ſixty feet in height.

This colonade is ſupported on a ſolid baſe of coarſe, black, irregular rock, near ſixty feet thick, abounding in blebs and air holes; but though comparatively irregular, it may be evidently obſerved to affect a peculiar figure, tending in many places to run into regular forms reſembling the ſhooting of ſalts, and many other ſubſtances, during a haſty cryſtallization.

Under this great bed of ſtone ſtands a ſecond range of pillars between forty and fifty feet in height, leſs groſs, and more exactly defined than thoſe of the upper ſtory, many of them on a cloſe view emulating even the neatneſs of the columns of the Giant's Cauſeway. This lower range is borne on a layer of red ochre ſtone, which ſerves as relief to ſhew it to great advantage.

Theſe two admirable natural galleries, together with the interjacent maſs of irregular rock, form a perpendicular height

of one hundred and ſeventy feet; from the baſe of which, the promontory, covered over with rock and graſs, ſlopes down to the ſea for the ſpace of two hundred feet more, making in all a maſs of nearly four hundred feet in height, which in beauty, and the variety of its colouring, in elegance and ſingularity of arrangement, and in the extraordinary magnitude of its objects, can ſcarcely be rivalled.

At the diſtance of eight miles, as already mentioned, the promontory of Fairhead raiſes its lofty ſummit more than five hundred feet above the ſea, forming the eaſtern termination of Bally-caſtle Bay. It preſents to view a vaſt maſs of rude columnar ſtones extremely large, many of them exceeding two hundred feet in length, and in their texture ſo coarſe, as to reſemble an imperfect compact granite, rather than the uniform fine grained baſaltes which compoſes the Giant's Cauſeway. At the baſe of theſe gigantic columns lies a wild waſte of natural ruins of an enormous ſize, which in the courſe of ſucceſſive ages have been tumbled down from their foundation by ſtorms or ſome more powerful operations of nature. Theſe maſſive bodies have ſometimes withſtood the ſhock of their fall, and are often ſeen lying in groups and clumps of pillars, reſembling many of the varieties of artificial ruins, and forming a very unique and ſtriking landſcape.

The baſaltes of the Giant's Cauſeway is a black ponderous ſtone, of an uniform cloſe grain and hard texture, fuſible *per ſe*, and pretty ſtrongly magnetic. It does not effervesce in any of the mineral acids; it is free from animal or vegetable exuviæ, nor does it contain the ſlighteſt veſtige of any organized ſubſtance whatever.

According to the experiments of that able chemiſt Bergman, 100 parts of baſaltes contain

	Parts.
Silicious earth	50
Argillaceous earth	15
Calcareous earth	8
Magneſia	2
Iron	25
	100

From the metallic nature of this ſtone, it may be inferred, that the columns of the Giant's Cauſeway are all natural magnets, whoſe lower extremity is their north pole, and the upper extremity their ſouth pole. For having ſtood during many ages in a perpendicular poſition, they muſt have acquired that polarity which is peculiar to all iron ſubſtances in a ſimilar ſituation; and like natural magnets, every fragment

when broken will have its north and ſouth pole. "And this," ſays Mr. Hamilton, "I have found true by experience; each pillar in the Giant's Cauſeway, and each fragment of a pillar which I applied near to the needle, having its attractive and repellent point. Hence likewiſe it follows, that the great capes of this northern coaſt muſt poſſeſs a ſimilar property; and accordingly, in the ſemicircular bays of Benjore I have often found the compaſs to deviate very much from the meridian."

GOVERNMENT.

THE government of Ireland before the Union was formed ſtrictly on the model of that of England, the Lord Lieutenant repreſenting, in a great meaſure, the perſon of the King, and the Houſes of Lords and Commons being exactly ſimilar to our own. Since the Union a near approach has been made to the ſyſtem by which the affairs of Scotland were regulated on the like occaſion; but advantages have been conceded to Ireland in the repreſentation, and in the eſtabliſhment of a court with a reſident viceroy.

THE LORD LIEUTENANT. The firſt eſtabliſhment of the office of Viceroy of Ireland is to be found in the reign of Henry II., but when the extenſion of Britiſh power in Ireland rendered ſuch an officer permanently neceſſary, it was provided by a ſtatute paſſed in the ſecond of Richard III., commonly called the ſtatute of Henry Fitz-Empreſs, that in caſe of the death of any chief governor, the chancellor, treaſurer, chief juſtices, and chief baron, keeper of the rolls, and king's ſerjeant at law, ſhould be empowered, with conſent of the nobles of the land, to elect a ſucceſſor, who was to exerciſe the full power and authority of this office, until the royal pleaſure ſhould be further known. It appears, that proviſion to the like purpoſe was made in the reign of Henry VIII., by another act of parliament, which ſtates, "that upon the avoidance of the King's Lieutenant of Ireland by death, ſurrender, &c. the chancellor of the King's writ ſhall aſſemble the privy council, and chooſe by a majority of voices, an Engliſhman, being no ſpiritual perſon, to be governor; and if none ſuch be found, to chooſe two out of the council: the chancellor thereupon to make out letters patent for him to enjoy the ſame till the King appoints one: all other methods, except by the King's patent, to be void." The officers appointed in purſuance of theſe ſtatutes have in different times been ſtyled in their patents and commiſſions by different names, as *Cuſtos* or *Keeper*, *Juſticiary*, *Warden*, *Procurator*, *Seneſchal*, *Conſtable*, *Juſtice*, *Juſtices*, *Deputy*,

Deputy, and *Lieutenant*; all which names import the ſame thing in effect, namely, the adminiſtrator of the public juſtice, and affairs of the kingdom, under the authority, and by the commiſſion of the King. The juriſdiction and authority of theſe officers are ample and royal, yet modified by the terms of their commiſſions; in ſome reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the King's pleaſure, or the exigencies of the times. When any chief governor enters upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the uſual oath before the Lord Chancellor, the ſword which is to be carried before him is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the Lord Chancellor, the members of the privy council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at arms, and other officers of ſtate. So that if he be conſidered in regard to his juriſdiction and authority, or his train, attendance, or ſplendour, there is no viceroy in chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown, namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, (when in the kingdom,) and ſuch other of the archbiſhops, earls, biſhops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as His Majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The ſalary of the Lord Lieutenant, by a late act of parliament, is 30,000*l. per annum*. He correſponds with the Secretary of State for the home department, by whoſe directions he is ſuppoſed to regulate his conduct.

The Castle. The reſidence of the Lord Lieutenant is the Caſtle, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been built by Henry de Laundres, Archbiſhop of Dublin, in 1220: he was governor of the Engliſh poſſeſſions in Ireland, and ſucceſſor to Meiler Fitz-Henry, who, remaining but three years in the government, after receiving the order from John for building that fortreſs, either did not begin it, or only made a beginning, and the archbiſhop had the honour of finiſhing it. The entrance into the caſtle from the city was on the north ſide, by a draw bridge, between two ſtrong round towers, armed with a portcullis, called the gateway towers. From the weſtern gate tower, a ſtrong high curtain extended weſtward to Cork tower, from whence the wall was continued in one ſtraight curtain ſouthward, and was terminated by a ſtrong high tower, called Birmingham tower, the ſtatelieſt, ſtrongeſt, and higheſt of all. From Birmingham tower, a high curtain was continued eaſtward to another, called the Wardrobe tower, being a repoſitory for the royal robes, the cap of maintenance, and other furniture of ſtate. In the curtain between Birmingham and the Wardrobe, were two ſmaller towers. From the

the Wardrobe tower, another curtain extended northward to the Storehouſe tower, and from thence was continued to the eaſtern Gateway tower, at the entrance into the caſtle. The whole was an oblong quadrangle, and encompaſſed with a broad deep moat, partly dry, and partly under water by the flowing of the tide, and a branch of the river Dodder, called the Poddle, which ran by the ſouth curtain, and ſtill runs in the ſame direction, though now a ſewer under ground. There were two ſally-ports, or poſtern gates, in the walls of this fortreſs, one near Birmingham tower toward the weſt; the other by the eaſtern curtain, to the offices in the back yard.

The ancient officers to whom the guard of the caſtle ordinarily belonged, were a conſtable, gentleman porter, and a body of warders, conſiſting of pikemen and archers, and after the invention of guns, of harquebuſſiers, and artillerymen, a quantity of great ordnance being planted in the moſt convenient places for defence. The two gateway towers were for the uſe of the conſtable of the caſtle, for the cuſtody of ſtate priſoners. There were alſo a chaplain, and officers of the mint, who held their reſidence in the caſtle. Many attempts were made in times of commotion to ſurpriſe this fortreſs, but were happily fruſtrated.

The Caſtle was not converted to the purpoſe of the ſeat of government till the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Before that time there ſeems to have been no fixed place for the reſidence of the chief governors; they ſometimes held their courts at Thomas-court, ſometimes at the palace of the archbiſhop of Dublin, at St. Sepulchre's, but oftener than at any other place at the caſtle of Kilmainham. In 1559, the caſtle of Kilmainham being much out of repair, that of Dublin was, by order of Queen Elizabeth, repaired and enlarged. Sir Henry Sydney, in 1565, was the firſt viceroy who reſided there, and from that time it has been the ſeat of the viceroy. In the latter days of Elizabeth, and the beginning of her ſucceſſor's reign, both terms and parliament were holden within the Caſtle, yet it was not a fixed place for either. It was, however, ſoon diſengaged from theſe temporary incumbrances, and has undergone ſuch changes, in figure, extent, and beauty, that few traces of its priſtine form can be diſcerned at this day. Great part of Birmingham and the Wardrobe towers remain; and ſo lately as 1715, one of the gateway towers, with ſome of the old adjoining building, were ſtanding.

The Caſtle at preſent is a conſiderable, and on the whole a very reſpectable pile of building, ſituated on the higheſt ground in or about the centre of the preſent city. It is divided into

two courts, termed the upper and the lower; the upper court is the principal, and contains the ſtate and private apartments of the chief governor and his ſuite; and, although the buildings wear an appearance of age, yet from their uniformity, the ſpacioufneſs of the court, and fine diſplay of the north ſide, it has an impoſing air of grandeur. The interior is diſtinguiſhed by many ſplendid apartments; but the object that commands the greateſt portion of attention is the ball room, or St. Patrick's Hall, as it is called: this is a ſtately, ſpacious apartment, eighty-two feet long, forty-one feet broad, and thirty-eight high; it was newly fitted up, and decorated, after the inſtitution of the Knights of St. Patrick, in 1783; the alterations being begun, by command of Earl Temple, afterward Marquis of Buckingham, when chief governor. The paintings on the flat of the ceiling are divided into three compartments, an oblong rectangle at each end, and a circle in the middle. In one of the rectangles is repreſented Saint Patrick converting the Iriſh to Chriſtianity; in the other, Henry II. receiving the ſubmiſſions of the Iriſh chieftains, and in the circle is an allegorical repreſentation, alluding to the happy and flouriſhing ſtate of the country, with a portrait of His Majeſty, George III., ſupported by Liberty and Juſtice. Around the ceiling, to the cornice of the room, is a deep cove, richly painted, which completes the effect. The private chapel of the Lord Lieutenant is humble, and little adorned.

Officers. The officers of the Lord Lieutenant's houſehold are a private ſecretary, a ſteward, a comptroller, a chamberlain, a gentleman uſher, a maſter of the horſe, with gentlemen of the chamber, pages, &c.

OFFICERS OF STATE.

The Secretary. Next to the Lord Lieutenant the ſecretary is conſidered the principal efficient officer. He reſides in London, but his office is divided into two departments, military and civil, over each of which an under ſecretary is placed; and, as the chief burthen falls upon them, great aſſiduity is required. The ſecretary has an office in London, with which the offices in Dublin correſpond.

Clerk of the Council. Ireland has a privy council, of which the chief officers of ſtate are members, but as the Lord Lieutenant preſides, there is no Lord Preſident known as a public officer; in conſequence the perſon principally noticed in the formation of it is the clerk, whoſe office is filled by a peer. He has three deputies and proper ſubordinate officers.

Lords

LORDS OF THE TREASURY. The treaſury is diſtinct from that of England, and is under the direction of a complete board. Among the number is the chancellor of the Exchequer, whoſe duty it is to propoſe new articles of taxation, and to raiſe thoſe loans which enable Ireland to contribute her ſhare toward the general expenditure of the empire. There is a ſecretary, with clerks and proper aſſiſtants.

THE LORD CHANCELLOR. Although the Chancellor is inveſted as in England with a political character, he is principally conſidered as a law officer, and his Court differs in no reſpect from that of the Chancery in England.

PEERS.

PEERAGE. The peerage of Ireland is compoſed exactly of the ſame orders of nobility as that of England. Before the Union, they formed a Houſe of Parliament ſitting in the ſame form, and enjoying the ſame authority and privileges with the peers of Great Britain. The manner of repreſentation adopted at the Union is fully explained in giving an account of the Houſe of Lords, (Vol. I. p. 211).

In 1812 the Iriſh peerage conſiſted of the following claſſes of nobility:

Duke - - -	1
Marquiſes - -	9
Earls - - -	84
Viſcounts - -	52
Barons - - -	61

This body muſt, in the courſe of time decreaſe; becauſe the crown, by the act of Union, cannot create a new peer, but on the extinction of three titles. Mr. Wakefield conſiders it ſingular, that in the whole catalogue of the Iriſh peerage, there are not above ten or twelve families who can be traced as of real Iriſh extraction; but there are many of ſuch long eſtabliſhment in that country, that they conſider themſelves, and are generally conſidered as purely Iriſh.

The following Engliſh peers are peers alſo of Ireland:

Duke of York - - -	Earl of Ulſter.
Duke of Clarence - - -	Earl of Munſter.
Duke of Kent - - -	Earl of Dublin.

Duke

Duke of Cumberland	Earl of Armagh.
Duke of Cambridge	Earl of Tipperary.
Duke of Suſſex	Baron Arklow.
Duke of Glouceſter	Earl of Connaught.
Earl of Denbigh	Earl Deſmond.
Earl Fitzwilliam	Viſcount Miltown.
Marquis Lanſdown	Earl Shelburne.
Earl of Fife	Earl of Fife.
Marquis of Buckingham	Earl Nugent.
Earl of Jerſey	Viſcount Grandiſon.
Earl of Scarborough	Viſcount Lumley.
Earl of Cholmondeley	Viſcount Cholmondeley.
Marquis of Abercorn	Viſcount Strabane.
Earl of Digby	Lord Digby.
Earl of Harborough	Lord Leitrim.
Marquis of Hertford	Lord Conway.
Earl of Powis	Lord Clive.
Earl Sheffield	Lord Sheffield, Baron Dunamore.
Baron Mulgrave	Lord Mulgrave.
Baron Arden	Lord Arden.
Lord Lyttleton	Lord Weſtcote.
Baron Auckland	Baron Auckland.
Baron St. Helens	Baron St. Helens.
Viſcount Hood	Lord Hood.
Baron Carrington	Baron Carrington.
Baron Keith	Baron Keith.
Baron Gardner	Lord Gardner.

The following Iriſh peers ſit in the Houſe of Lords as Engliſh peers :

Duke of Leinſter	as	Viſcount Leinſter.
Marquis of Waterford		Lord Tyrone.
Marquis of Downſhire		Earl of Hilſborough.
Marquis of Donegal		Lord Fiſherwick.
Marquis of Drogheda		Baron Moore.
Marquis Welleſley		Baron Welleſley
Marquis of Sligo		Baron Mount-Eagle.
Marquis of Ely		Baron Loftus.
Earl of Ormonde and Oſſory		Baron Butler.
Earl of Cork and Orrery		Lord Boyle.
Earl of Granard		Baron Granard.
Earl of Darnley		Lord Clifton.
Earl of Egmont		Lord Lovell and Holland.
Earl of Beſborough		Lord Ponſonby.

Earl

Earl of Upper Oſſory	as	Baron of Upper Oſſory.
Earl of Shannon		Baron Carleton.
Earl Moira		Marquis of Haſtings.
Earl of Courtown		Baron Saltersford.
Earl of Clare		Baron Fitzgibbon.
Viſcount Bulkeley		Baron Bulkeley.
Viſcount Down		Baron Downey.
Viſcount Grimſton		Baron Verulam.
Viſcount Gage		Baron Gage.
Viſcount Clifton		Baron Mendip.

As ſome of the Iriſh peers are Engliſh peers alſo, and, conſequently, hereditary members of the Upper Houſe of Parliament, and as ten are Roman Catholics, the number of electing peers is reduced to about one hundred and thirty-five.

Representation. It appears that for almoſt a century and a half after Henry II. had taken poſſeſſion of Ireland, there was but one parliament for both kingdoms; the laws made in the parliament of England being tranſmitted to Ireland, under the great ſeal, to be proclaimed, enrolled, and executed, as laws of Ireland.

The firſt regular parliament ſeems to have been about the end of the reign of Edward II.; for the meetings and conſultations of the great lords before that period, although in old annals called parliaments, are not, in the proper ſenſe of the word, entitled to that appellation. When Ireland was invaded by the Scots under Bruce, the Engliſh government found itſelf ſo much embarraſſed, that, not being able to afford effectual aſſiſtance to the ſubjects, they were authorized to hold a general council of the kingdom among themſelves, in order that they might purſue ſpeedier and more deciſive meaſures for allaying the commotions with which the whole country was then agitated.

In the reign of Henry VII., the parliament of Ireland became, in ſome meaſure, dependent on that of England, by an act paſſed under the direction of Sir Edward Poynings, the lord deputy, by which it was provided, that all the ſtatutes lately made in England, of a public nature, ſhould be held effectual and valid in Ireland. It has been erroneouſly ſuppoſed, that this act extended to the whole code of Engliſh ſtatutes; for, in reality, it refers only to a certain number, which, however, inaccurately ſtated, were under the eye of the Iriſh legiſlature.

"From this regulation," ſays Profeſſor Millar, "it may be fairly inferred, that the Iriſh parliament was, at this time, underſtood to poſſeſs an independent legiſlative authority; for if that

that aſſembly was capable of adopting the Engliſh laws, it muſt have poſſeſſed the power alſo of rejecting them; and, as this act of legiſlature ſufficiently teſtifies the exertion of independence on the part of Ireland, the aſſent of the governor, on the part of the king, leaves no doubt of His Majeſty's approbation and concurrence."

This independent right was, however, conſiderably reduced by the ſtatute known by the name of Poynings' Law, which declared that no parliament ſhould be held in Ireland, until the lord deputy and his council ſhould make known to the king and council in England the cauſes for which the meeting was to be called, and the bills which were to be paſſed; and that, unleſs the king's leave were previouſly obtained, the acts of any parliament ſhould be void. In the reign of Queen Mary this law was ſtill further extended, by an act which declared, that no parliament ſhould be held in Ireland until the chief governor and council had certified to the king and council of England, not only the meaſures which were in contemplation at the time when the parliament was called, but thoſe alſo which might become the ſubject of its future deliberation. In the reign of His preſent Majeſty, however, theſe reſtrictions were gradually relaxed, and in 1782 the Iriſh parliament was declared to be totally independent of that of England.

Before the thirty-third year of Henry VIII. it appears that none were admitted into parliament but Engliſhmen by birth, or the deſcendants of Engliſhmen; the Iriſh being entirely excluded. To conceal the jealouſy which dictated this excluſion it was plauſibly alleged that their lands, lying beyond the limits of counties, could ſend no knights, and as they contained no cities or towns they could ſend no burgeſſes.

Before the thirty-fourth year of the ſame ſovereign, when Meath was divided into two ſhires, there were only twelve counties in Ireland, beſides the liberty of Tipperary; the number of knights, therefore, muſt have been few; there were only four ancient cities, and the boroughs which ſent burgeſſes did not exceed thirty. Hence it appears, that the whole houſe of commons could not then amount to 100 perſons; and although Queen Mary added two ſhires, and Queen Elizabeth 17 more, to increaſe the number of knights, they did not all ſend members to parliament, for the remote ſhires of Ulſter did not return any.

Ireland, therefore, in the reign of King James, contained 33 counties; and as ſome of them had no boroughs, it was found expedient to create 40 new ones. Charles I. exerciſed this prerogative, but not to ſo great an extent; and Queen Anne added one borough, which appears to have been the laſt.

In

In 1719, a private law-ſuit in Ireland gave riſe to a controverſy about the right of appeal from the Iriſh tribunals to the Houſe of Lords in England: and the conſequence was, an act of the Britiſh parliament, declaring the right of the King, Lords, and Commons of Great Britain to make ſtatutes to bind the people and kingdom of Ireland, and denying the right of the Houſe of Lords of Ireland to judge of, affirm, or reverſe, any judgment, ſentence, or decree, given or made in any court within that kingdom.

Yet the legiſlature of Ireland preſerved its independence in taxation. No Britiſh parliament appears ever to have aſſumed or claimed the right of impoſing taxes on that country; and ſeveral inſtances are recorded, in which the Iriſh parliament manifeſted a patriotic jealouſy on this point.

According to the early conſtitution of parliament, both in England and in Ireland, theſe aſſemblies could be diſſolved at the pleaſure of the crown; but when this prerogative was not exerciſed, they remained till the death of the king. In England, however, in the reign of William III., the duration of parliaments was limited to three years, which period in the reign of George I. was extended to ſeven; but as no change of the ſame kind had been introduced into Ireland, the parliament there continued to exiſt, according to the old plan, during the life of the king, until 1768, when, in conſequence of a bill brought in by Dr. Lucas, the member for Dublin, its duration was reſtricted to eight years.

At the time of the Union, the Houſe of Commons of Ireland, compoſed in the ſame manner with that of England, comprized

67 County members,
2 For the Univerſity,
14 For cities,
215 For boroughs, towns, &c.

The mode in which this repreſentation has been provided for by the act of Union is already ſtated (Vol. I. p. 232.)

THE CHURCH.

ESTABLISHMENT. The church of Ireland by law eſtabliſhed, is preciſely the ſame with that of England. The ranks and orders are the ſame, nor is there in any part any eſſential and ſcarcely a formal difference. One, with reſpect to the election of deans, is pointed out in a learned note by the laſt editors of Coke on Littleton, p. 95., but it would be of little uſe to general readers to tranſcribe it in this place.

According

According to the preſent church conſtitution in Ireland, there are four archbiſhopricks, and 27 biſhopricks. The four archbiſhopricks are thoſe of Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

ARMAGH.

THE Archbiſhop of Armagh is ſtyled Lord Primate of *all* Ireland: the ſee is ſaid to have been founded by St. Patrick, who built a church at Armagh in 444 or 445.

The chapter is compoſed of five dignitaries, and four prebendaries, who have voices in every capitular act. The dignitaries are thus ranked; a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, and archdeacon. There are alſo eight vicars choral, and an organiſt attendant on the ſervice of the cathedral.

The province of Armagh contains the following biſhopricks.

MEATH and CLONMACNOIS. There were formerly many epiſcopal ſees in Meath, as Clonard, Duleek, Kells, Trim, Ardbraccan, Donſhaghlin, Slane, and Foure, beſides others of leſs note; all which, except Duleck and Kells, were conſolidated, and their common ſee was fixed at Clonard before the year 1152, at which time the diviſion of the biſhopricks in Ireland was made by John Papars, cardinal-prieſt, entitled Cardinal of St. Lawrence in Damaſo, then legate from Pope Eugene III., in a ſynod held the 6th March in the abbey of Mellifont, or, as ſome ſay, at Kells. The two ſees alſo of Duleek and Kells afterward ſubmitted to the ſame fate. The conſtitution of Meath is ſingular, having neither dean, chapter, nor cathedral. Under the biſhop the archdeacon is the head officer, to whom and to the clergy in general the *congé d'elire* iſſued, while biſhops were elective. The affairs of the dioceſe are tranſacted by a ſynod, in the nature of a chapter, who have a common ſeal, which is annually lodged in the hands of one of the body, by the appointment and vote of the majority. The dioceſe is divided into twelve rural deaneries. The biſhop while in the country reſides at Ardbraccan.

The ſee of *Clonmacnois* was founded by St. Kiaran, or Ciaran, the younger, in 548 or 549; and Dermod, the ſon of Ceronhill, king of Ireland, granted the ſite on which the church was built. The chapter of this ſee conſiſted anciently of dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and twelve prebendaries; but moſt of their poſſeſſions having fallen into lay hands, the deanery is the only part of the chapter which ſubſiſts, to which the prebend of Cloghran is annexed; and the dean has

has a ſeal of office, which appears to have been the ancient epiſcopal ſeal.

CLOGHER. This ſee was founded by St. Macartin, who was one of the earlieſt diſciples of St. Patrick, his indefatigable aſſiſtant in preaching, and called the ſtaff and ſupport of his old age. He fixed the ſee at Clogher, where he alſo built a monaſtery at the command of Saint Patrick, in the ſtreet before the royal ſeat of the kings of Ergal. In 1041 this cathedral was rebuilt, and dedicated to its founder. It appears by the regiſter of Clogher, that the ancient chapter conſiſted of twelve canons, whereof the dean and archdeacon were always two.

DOWN AND CONNOR. Theſe ſees were united in 1454. The chapter of the dioceſe of Down conſiſts of ſix members, the dean, archdeacon, chanter, chancellor, and two prebendaries. The biſhops hold their viſitations, both for this and for that of Connor united to it, in the pariſh church of Liſburne, being neareſt to the centre of both.

The chapter of Connor conſiſts of nine members, viz. dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and four prebendaries.

KILMORE. The biſhops of this ſee borrowed their ſtyle or title from a territory called Breſiny or Brefue; from thence they were ſometimes named Breſinienſes, ſometimes Triburnenſes, biſhops of Triburna; becauſe they are ſaid to have had their reſidence near a little village of that name; but in 1484, Andrew Macbrady, Biſhop of Triburna, by the aſſent of Pope Nicholas V. finding the pariſh church of St. Fedlernid or Feiimy, to be a more commodious ſituation, erected it into a cathedral, and placed in it thirteen canons. Pope Caliſtus III. confirmed this act the year following; and it is ſaid the deanery of Kilmore was conſtituted about the ſame time. At preſent, a ſmall pariſh church at Kilmore, contiguous to the epiſcopal houſe, ſerves for a cathedral, and the only remains of the chapter are the dean and archdeacon.

ARDAGH. This place takes its name from its ſituation, being on a riſing ground; and the cathedral is dedicated to St. Patrick. The ſee was formerly joined to that of Kilmore, but afterward disjoined from it and connected with that of Tuam. All that remains of the chapter of this dioceſe is the dean and archdeacon; and of the cathedral, a part of a wall formed of large ſtones, which appears to have been a very ſmall building when entire.

DROMORE. This ſee was founded by St. Colman, who was deſcended from a ſept of the Arabs. The ancient foundation of the chapter conſiſted of a dean, archdeacon, and prebendaries;

daries; but this foundation was altered in the time of Biſhop Tod, and a new one erected by letters patent of James I. dated the 21ſt February, in the eighth year of his reign; ſince which time it has conſiſted of a dean, archdeacon, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, and one prebendary. The cathedral is dedicated to Chriſt the Redeemer.

Raphoe. It is not eaſy to aſcertain the exact time when this ſee was founded. St. Colomb, a man of great virtue and learning, and born of royal blood, founded a monaſtery in this place. This houſe was afterwards enlarged and repaired by other holy men; but it is the received opinion, that St. Eunan erected the church into a cathedral, of which he was the firſt biſhop.

Derry or London Derry. This ſee, when firſt founded, was placed at Ardfrath, from whence it was tranſlated to Maghere, and dedicated to St. Luroch. The chapter of this dioceſe is compoſed of a dean, archdeacon, and three prebendaries. There is but one pariſh in the dioceſe that wants a glebe; nor is there one ſinecure in it. Before the reformation, the biſhop had one third of the tithes; a lay perſon, who was the biſhop's farmer, called a *lirenach*, had another, and the other third was allowed for the cure; but Biſhop Montgomery, the firſt Biſhop after the Reformation ſupported by James the Firſt, aboliſhed all theſe, and gave the whole tithes to the cure.

Dublin.

The archbiſhop of Dublin is ſtyled primate of Ireland, and not, as his grace of Armagh, of *all* Ireland.

The firſt mention, which we find of the ſee of Dublin, is in the ſeventh century. In 1152, it was erected into an archbiſhoprick, and in 1214, the Biſhoprick, of Glandelagh, which had been founded in the ſixth century, was incorporated with it. It is 50 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and thirty-ſix miles in the greateſt breadth; containing the whole county of Dublin, the moſt of Wicklow, and part of two other counties. The chapter of Saint Patrick Dublin conſiſts of the dean (who is elective by the archbiſhop and chapter,) the precentor, chancellor, treaſurer, two archdeacons, of Dublin and Glandelagh, and nineteen prebendaries. The members of the collegiate chapter of Chriſt-church are the dean, precentor, chancellor, treaſurer, the archdeacon of Dublin, and three prebendaries. This deanery is annexed to the biſhoprick of Kildare. The archbiſhop's palace is a very antique building.

building. His grace has alſo a ſmall country reſidence at Tallagh, of no very modern date.

Glendaloch has been ſo long united to the archiepiſcopal ſee of Dublin, that the names of its biſhops are ſeldom to be met with in hiſtory. St. Keiven ſeems to be the founder of this ſee. Here was both a cathedral and abbey; the firſt was dedicated to the apoſtles St. Peter and St. Paul, and both ſituated in a ſmall valley ſurrounded by lofty mountains. The place is now commonly known by the name of the Seven Churches, from the remains of ſo many buildings that are contiguous to the cathedral.

Ossory. The epiſcopal ſee of Oſſory was firſt planted at Saiger, (now called Seir Keran,) in the territory of Ely O'Carroll, about the year 402, (thirty years before the arrival of Saint Patrick,) from whence the biſhops of it were called *Epiſcopi Saigerenſis*, biſhops of Saiger. From Saiger it was tranſlated to Aghavoe in Upper Oſſory, at what time is uncertain, but concluded to be in 1052. Many of the biſhops of Oſſory were at great expence in building and beautifying their church, which was univerſally allowed to be the fineſt in Ireland. The chapter of the cathedral of St. Carrics in Kilkenny conſiſts of twelve members, viz. dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer and archdeacon, and ſeven prebendaries. The dioceſe of Oſſory contained the whole county and county of the city of Kilkenny (five pariſhes excepted). It alſo contains one pariſh in King's county, (viz. Lier Keran,) and the entire barony of Upper Oſſory, which is a full third part of Queen's county.

Ferns and Leighlin. *Ferns* took its name from the hero Ferna, ſon of Caril, King of the Decies, who was ſlain in battle here by Gallus, the ſon of Morna. This ſee was anciently archiepiſcopal for a time. The chapter of Ferns is compoſed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and ten prebendaries.

Leighlin. This ſee has been united to Ferns ever ſince the year 1600. The chapter is compoſed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and four prebendaries. The dioceſe is divided into five rural deaneries.

Cashel.

Caſhel, anciently *Car* Siol, or the habitation on the rock, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is ſtyled Lord Primate of Munſter. The ſee was either founded or reſtored at the beginning of the tenth century; it was made an archbiſhoprick

in 1152. *Emly*, which was founded in the fifth century, is ſaid to have been at firſt an archbiſhoprick alſo. They were united in 1568. The archbiſhoprick is almoſt confined to the county of Tipperary, branching a very little way into the counties of Kilkenny and Limerick, and is twenty-eight miles in length, and twenty-three in breadth. The united ſees are very compact, extending thirty-two miles in one direction, and thirty miles in the other. The chapter conſiſts of a dean, precentor, chancellor, treaſurer, and archdeacon, with four prebendaries. The cathedral, which ſerves alſo for a pariſh church, is a large and handſome edifice: the ancient and ſpacious church, which, ſtill venerable in ruins, ſtands upon the rock of Caſhel, having fallen to decay. The palace is a plain large houſe, in the city, to which a public library is annexed.

Limerick. Donald O'Brien, King of Limerick, founded and endowed the cathedral of Limerick, about the time of the arrival of the Engliſh in Ireland. Several of the biſhops and the citizens of Limerick have been great benefactors to this church. The biſhoprick of Inis Cathay, or Inis Scattery, was united to the ſee of Limerick about the end of the 12th, or beginning of the 13th century; but according to Uſher, the poſſeſſions of it are divided amongſt the ſees of Limerick, Killaloe, and Ardfert. The chapter of Limerick is compoſed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and eleven prebendaries, one of which latter, viz. Athnet, is the Menſal of the biſhop. The cathedral is dedicated to the Virgin Mary. The dioceſe is divided into five rural deaneries.

This biſhoprick was united to thoſe of Ardfert and Aghadoe, which had long been ſo incorporated, as to form but one dioceſe. *Ardfert* or Ardart, was eſtabliſhed in the fifth century, includes the whole county of Kerry, and a portion of Cork. The chapter is compoſed of a dean, archdeacon, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, and archdeacon of Aghadoe.

Cork. There is very little to be found in ancient writers concerning the foundation of the cathedral of Cork; yet it is generally aſcribed to St. Barr in the ſeventh century. Many of its biſhops have been great benefactors to it. Through length of time, the church became quite ruinous: but it was completely rebuilt, and is now an elegant modern ſtructure. To defray the expence, Parliament laid a tax on all coals conſumed in the city. The chapter conſiſts of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and twelve prebendaries. The church is dedicated to Saint Barr, or Finbarr. The dioceſe is divided into five deaneries.

Cloyne

Cloyne became united to Cork in 1430, but was afterward ſeparated. *Roſs* too was joined with Cork, about the time of Queen Elizabeth, and ſtill continues ſo. Its chapter conſiſts of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and five prebendaries. The dioceſe is divided into three rural deaneries.

WATERFORD. The cathedral of Waterford is dedicated to the Bleſſed Trinity, and was firſt built by the Oſtmen, and by Malchus, the firſt biſhop of Waterford, after his return from England from his conſecration. The chapter of Waterford is compoſed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and ſix prebendaries.

Liſmore was joined to Waterford in 1363. Its church was founded by Saint Carthagh about the year 636; and Cormac, the ſon of Muretus, king of Munſter, repaired it about the year 1130. The chapter of Liſmore conſiſted anciently of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and eleven prebendaries; but there are now only nine prebendaries. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Carthagh.

CLOYNE. This ſee was founded in the ſixth century by St. Coleman, ſon of Linin, a man of learning and piety, and a diſciple of St. Finbarr, biſhop of Cork, and who was himſelf the firſt biſhop of it. The chapter of Cloyne is compoſed of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, and archdeacon, and fourteen prebendaries. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Coleman. The dioceſe is divided into four rural deaneries. The collegiate church of St. Mary of Youghal is united to the biſhoprick.

KILLALOE. This ſee is ſuppoſed to be founded by St. Moluæ, who was abbot here. The church of Killaloe was eſteemed of great ſanctity, and was anciently much reſorted to in pilgrimage; among other inſtances, Connor Mac Dermod O'Brien, King of Thomond and Deſmond, died at Killaloe in pilgrimage, in the year 1142. About the end of the twelfth century, the ancient ſee of *Roſcrea* was united and annexed to this church; by which union the dioceſe of Killaloe became very large, containing about 116 pariſh churches, beſide chapels. As to the origin of the church of Roſcrea, it is moſt certain, that St. Cronan, who was biſhop, or as ſome ſay, abbot, was the firſt founder of it, and flouriſhed about the year 620. The chapter of Killaloe is at preſent conſtituted of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, archdeacon, and ſeven prebendaries.

The ſee of *Kilfenora*, which had been eſtabliſhed about the

twelfth century, was united in 1752 to the ſee of Killaloe. It is confined to the baronies of Burrin and Corcomroe, and extends only eighteen miles by nine. The chapter conſiſts of a dean, precentor, chancellor, treaſurer, and archdeacon. The cathedral is very ancient, but in good repair: the nave is full of old family ornaments, and in the choir is the effigy of St. Fechnan, its original founder, carved at full length. Here are alſo ſeven croſſes, each of which is formed of a ſingle ſtone, and ornamented with very curious old ſculpture. It was anciently called *Fenabore*.

TUAM.

The archbiſhop of Tuam is ſtyled Primate of Connaught.

St. Jarlath, the ſon of Loga, is looked upon as the firſt founder of the Cathedral of Tuam, anciently called Tuaim-da-Gualand; which church was afterward dedicated to his memory, and called *Tempull Jarleith*, or Jarlaith's church; and the time of its foundation is placed about the beginning of the ſixth century. In 1152, this cathedral was, by the aid and aſſiſtance of Tirdelvae O'Connor, king of Ireland, rebuilt by Edan O'Hoiſin, firſt archbiſhop of Tuam, at leaſt the firſt who had the uſe of the pall; for ſome of his predeceſſors are ſometimes called biſhops of Connaught, and ſometimes archbiſhops, by the Iriſh hiſtorians, although they were not inveſted with the pall. Some of the ſucceeding biſhops built a new choir, and afterward converted this church into the nave or body of the church. The biſhoprick of Mayo was united and annexed to Tuam in 1559, and with it the ſee of Ardagh is holden in *commendam*. The chapter of Tuam conſiſts of dean, archdeacon, provoſt, and eight prebendaries. There are five ſtipendaries for the choir. The church is dedicated to the Bleſſed Virgin Mary.

Mayo. St. Gerald, a native of England, and diſciple of St. Coleman, Biſhop of Landisfern, followed that ſaint upon his expulſion out of England, in company with many of the ſame nation. St. Coleman founded a monaſtery about the year 665 or 670, at Mayo, and placed in it the Engliſhmen who followed him; from whence it took the name of Mayo-na-Saſſon, or Mayo of the Saxons. St. Gerald enlarged this monaſtery, and erected it into an epiſcopal ſee, of which he was the firſt biſhop.

ELPHIN. St. Patrick founded a cathedral in this place, near a little river iſſuing from two fountains, about the middle of the fifth century, and placed over it St. Aſicus, a monk, and a great lover

lover of penance and auſterity, whom he conſecrated biſhop, and who ſoon after filled it with monks. After many centuries, and a little before the arrival of the Engliſh in Ireland, this ſee of Elphin was enriched with many large eſtates, upon the tranſlation of the ſee of Roſcommon to it. The ſees of Ardcarn, Drumclive, and ſome others of leſs note, were united and annexed to this; and by theſe unions, the ſee of Elphin came at laſt to be looked upon as one of the richeſt in Ireland. The chapter of Elphin, according to ſome ancient books of viſitations, conſiſts of a dean, archdeacon, provoſt, and twelve prebendaries. The dioceſe is divided into four rural deaneries.

CLONFERT. St. Brendan, the ſon of Finloga, contemporary with St. Brendan of Birr, and his fellow ſtudent, founded an abbey at Clonfert, near the Shannon, A. D. 558, over which he was abbot himſelf, and was buried in it, after a life of ninety-three years. The chapter of Clonfert conſiſts of a dean, archdeacon, ſacriſt, or treaſurer, and nine prebendaries.

The ſee of *Kilmacduagh* has been united to Clonfert ever ſince the year 1602. The church of Duach is indebted for its origin to St. Coleman, the ſon of Duach. He was deſcended from a noble family in Connaught, and very nearly related to Guair, king of that country. To diſtinguiſh him from other Colemans, his contemporaries, he was uſually called after his father, Macduach, or the ſon of Duach. This church was endowed with large poſſeſſions by Guair, king of Connaught, and his ſucceſſors. St. Coleman flouriſhed about the cloſe of the ſixth or the beginning of the ſeventh century. His feſtival is kept on the third of February. The chapter of Kilmacduagh conſiſts at preſent of a dean, provoſt, chancellor, archdeacon, treaſurer and two prebendaries.

KILLALLA. Killalla is ſituated near the river Muad or Moy, in the county of Mayo; and the biſhops of this ſee are ſometimes called biſhops of Tiramalgaid, from the territory which ſurrounds it, now corrupted into Tyrawly. They are alſo ſometimes called biſhops of O'Fiacra-mui, or Fiacra, on the river Moy, from a territory of that name extended along the river, to diſtinguiſh it from another in Connaught, called O'Fiacra Aidue, which lies in the county of Galway. St. Muredach, the ſon of Eochaid, was the firſt biſhop of this ſee. He was conſecrated by St. Patrick; from whence it is manifeſt that he flouriſhed in the fifth century. His feſtival is obſerved the twelfth of Auguſt. The chapter conſiſts of a dean, archdeacon, provoſt, and two prebendaries.

Achonry. This ſee has been held *in commendam* with Killalla ever ſince the year 1612. St. Finian, biſhop of Clonard, founded the church of Achad, commonly called Achonry, and

Achad Conair, and anciently Achad Chavin, about the year 530. The chapter of Achonry conſiſts of a dean, provoſt, archdeacon, and five prebendaries.

VALUE. The eſtimated value in the king's books is not given with theſe ſeveral biſhopricks, as that affords little information as to their real worth; but the following are the obſervations of Mr. Wakefield on the ſubject.

"In England there are 26 archbiſhops and biſhops, and in Ireland 22, ſo that in point of number, both countries are nearly on an equality. It is difficult to form an accurate eſtimate of the amount of their incomes, I ſhall, however, ſubjoin a ſtatement, which is the reſult of information obtained from various intelligent perſons, reſident in their reſpective dioceſes. It is as correct, in all probability, as any eſtimate of property can be, which is ſo variable in its nature; and, for the ſake of compariſon, I have annexed to it that of Mr. Arthur Young, publiſhed in 1779.

	per Annum.		per Annum.
Armagh, or the Primacy -	£12,000	By Mr. Young	£8,000
Dublin - - -	12,000	- - -	5,000
Tuam - - - -	7,700	- - -	4,000
Caſhel - - - -	7,000	- - -	4,000
Clogher - - -	7,000	- - -	4,000
Dromore - - -	4,500	- - -	2,000
Down and Connor - -	5,000	- - -	2,800
Derry - - - -	12,500	- - -	7,000
Kilmore - - -	5,000	- - -	2,600
Meath - - - -	6,000	- - -	3,400
Raphoe - - -	8,000	- - -	2,600
Ferns and Leighlin - -	6,000	- - -	2,200
Kildare, held in commendam with the deanery of Chriſt Church	6,000	- - -	2,600
Oſſory - - - -	4,000	- - -	2,000
Cloyne - - - -	5,000	- - -	2,500
Cork and Roſs - -	4,500	- - -	2,700
Killaloe and Kilfenora -	5,000	- - -	2,300
Limerick, Ardfert and Aghadoe - -	6,000	- - -	3,500
Waterford and Liſmore -	6,000	- - -	2,500
Clonfert and Kilmacduagh	3,500	- - -	2,400
Elphin - - -	10,000	- - -	3,700
Killalla and Achonry -	3,500	- - -	2,900
	£125,000		£74,700

The

The incomes of church livings in Ireland are generally much larger than in England, and of late years they have been greatly augmented from the increaſe of tillage. The deanery of Down, in the year 1790, was worth only 2,000*l.* per annum. In 1812 it was let for 3,700*l.* The rectory of Middleton, in the county of Cork, in 1785, yielded ſcarcely 800*l.* per annum; at preſent it produces upwards of 2,800*l.* A living of 500*l.* is but a middling one in Ireland, and any thing beneath it is conſidered very low.

The incomes of the biſhopricks ariſe partly from tithe, as at Killaloe; but generally from grants of land, over which there is a reſtraining clauſe, to prevent the biſhop from letting them for longer than 21 years.

CATHOLICS. In this work it is not intended to ſay one word which may be conſtrued into an opinion, or ſerve for the foundation of one, on the queſtion ſo frequently and ſo warmly diſcuſſed under the title of the "Catholic Claims." The majority of the people of Ireland being of the Catholic perſuaſion, a church government is regularly organized, of which Mr. Wakefield gives the following account.

The Roman Catholic church of Ireland is compoſed of four archbiſhops and 22 biſhops. The archbiſhops take their titles, as in the eſtabliſhed church, from Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

Of the biſhops, eight are ſuffragans of Armagh; namely, thoſe of Ardagh, Clogher, Derry, Down and Connor, Dromore, Kilmore, Meath, and Raphoe.

Dublin has but three ſuffragans; Leighlin and Ferns, Kildare, and Oſſory.

Six are ſuffragans to Caſhel; viz. Ardfert and Aghadoe, Cloyne and Roſs, Cork, Killaloe, Limerick, and Waterford and Liſmore.

Four are ſubject to Tuam; viz. Achonry, Clonfert, Elphin, and Killalla.

There is alſo a biſhop of the united dioceſes of Kilmacduagh and Kilfenora; the one in Connaught, and the other in Munſter, who is alternately ſuffragan of Tuam and Caſhel.

Every biſhop has a vicar-general of his own appointment, who holds his office only *durante bene placito*, and whoſe juriſdiction ceaſes on the death of the prelate.

Every dioceſe has alſo a dean, appointed by the Cardinal Protector, or the Cardinal in Rome who has the peculiar direction of all eccleſiaſtical matters appertaining to Ireland; and alſo an archdeacon named by the biſhop. Theſe two are merely nominal dignities, having neither power nor emolument annexed to them.

On the death of a biſhop, the clergy of the dioceſe are empowered by the canon law to elect a *vicar capitular*, who is inveſted, during the vacancy, with epiſcopal juriſdiction; but if ſuch election does not take place within a ſpecified number of the days after the demiſe of the biſhop has been notified to them, the archbiſhop of the province may appoint, of his own authority, the vicar.

The clergy in the mean time aſſemble and chooſe one of their own body, or ſometimes a ſtranger; and petition the pope, or, according to the technical phraſe, *poſtulate*, that he may be appointed to the vacant ſee. The biſhops of the province alſo conſult with each other, and unite in preſenting to the pope two or three men of merit, one of whom is uſually appointed; for the recommendation of the prelates has generally more weight in Rome than the *poſtulation* of the inferior clergy.

The appointment of the Iriſh biſhops lies in the cardinals, who compoſe the congregation *de propaganda fide*. This ceremony takes place on Monday, and on the following Sunday their choice is ſubmitted to the pope, who confirms or annuls the nomination, as he thinks proper, but it very rarely happens that he does not confirm it.

Formerly Iriſh officers, in the ſervice of foreign princes, have been known to influence the congregation *de propaganda*, through the recommendation of their courts, to nominate their friends or relations, but it being found that various inconveniencies and abuſes were the conſequence of this influence, the congregation, about the year 1785, decreed that in future no attention ſhould be paid to any foreign recommendation.

It is cuſtomary in all Roman Catholic countries, and it is frequently the caſe in Ireland, that a biſhop may chooſe any meritorious clergyman to be his coadjutor and ſucceſſor at his death, when rendered incapable by old age, infirmity, or any accidental viſitation. This recommendation is almoſt invariably attended to in Rome, and the object of his choice is conſequently appointed and conſecrated, taking a title from ſome Oriental dioceſe; but this title he relinquiſhes on his ſucceeding to full poſſeſſion on the death of the biſhop whom he has been aſſiſting. While he retains the Oriental title, although in character and by conſecration a biſhop, he is called a biſhop *in partibus*, becauſe the ſee from which he takes his deſignation, being under the dominion of ſome eaſtern power, is ſtyled in the language of office *in partibus infidelium*.

Beſide the four Catholic archbiſhops and 22 biſhops, there is a dignitary who, without epiſcopal conſecration, has epiſcopal juriſdiction in the town and diſtrict of Galway, under the title of *Warden*. This diſtrict was detached from the

arch-

archdioceſe of Tuam in the year 1484, at the requeſt of the inhabitants, by Pope Innocent VIII. The warden is elected by the clergy and the repreſentatives of particular families; but his election is confirmed by the Pope, from whom he alſo receives canonical inſtitution, and who grants him the faculties uſually given to the biſhops. In the ſame diſtrict there is alſo a Proteſtant warden. The archbiſhop retains the appellant juriſdiction; he holds a viſitation of the diſtrict every third year, on which occaſion he adminiſters confirmation, and ordains all who have dimiſſorial letters from the warden: in every other reſpect he is independent of the metropolitan, and enjoys a ſeparate juriſdiction.

The funds, and other ſupports of the hierarchy, not being adequate to the decent maintenance of the biſhop, he receives proxies from the pariſh prieſts and curates at the time of Eaſter. Theſe proxies vary, according to the cuſtoms of different diſtricts, and the liberality of the clergy. In general, the pariſh prieſts give two guineas, and the curates one. Dr. Walſh calls them *cathedraticum*, and ſtates them to be very high in the dioceſe of Cork. The biſhops receive alſo what is called mulct money, or money for diſpenſations to marry in the prohibited degrees of kindred, and for licenſing marriages without the publication of banns: the latter practice, however, does not prevail in the archdioceſe of Cork, nor in the ſuffragan ſees of Kildare, Leighlin, and Oſſory. As adminiſtrator of a pariſh, the biſhop, like the pariſh prieſt, receives the uſual offerings at Eaſter, and dues, as they are called, for marriages, baptiſms, and other rites. Theſe cuſtomary offerings and dues fluctuate, according to the means and diſpoſition of the pariſhioners. Where collections are made at marriages for the pariſh prieſt, as is the caſe in Munſter, and a few other dioceſes, they are a precarious ſource of emolument. In many parts of Ulſter the pariſh prieſts receive offerings or dues, but the mode of collecting them does not appear. A reſpectable Roman Catholic prelate, from whom Mr. Wakefield derived his information, ſays, "As biſhop, I never received more than 165*l.*, and as pariſh prieſt 350*l.* currency. A dozen of my brethren, I think, receive more, but others much leſs. As to other pariſh prieſts, the majority of them do not receive above a hundred guineas a year, and there are many who do not get 60*l.*; theſe are ſupported chiefly by the hoſpitality of the pariſhioners."

Emoluments. Other reſources for ſupport of the Catholic clergy, conſiſt in the gratuitous performance of agricultural labour for him by the peaſantry, a practice generally prevalent; they have alſo Chriſtmas and Eaſter dues, marriage and baptiſmal

tiſmal fees, the former ſtated at a guinea, the latter at two ſhillings and ſixpence; there are alſo fees for maſſes in private houſes; and, upon the whole, it ſeems, that beſide their neceſſary payments to the eſtabliſhed church, the value given in money, labour, food, and by other means, by the Catholic people to their clergy, is much under-rated at 500,000*l.* per annum.

SECTS. IT may be ſaid, that none of the ſects which have ſprung up or eſtabliſhed themſelves in England, are utterly unknown in Ireland. Thoſe which are moſt numerous are, the Preſbyterians and Independents, the Quakers, and the Methodiſts of ſeveral denominations.

LEARNING.

THE writers on the antiquities of Ireland ſpeak in high terms of the progreſs which had been made by her natives in literature, at a time when the inhabitants of Great Britain were in a ſtate of complete ignorance, and produce ſome remains to ſhow a degree of refinement and erudition which make a conſiderable figure in the picture of the age. Nor were the care and liberality of former times withheld from the important object of general inſtruction; liberal endowments have been made, not in the capital alone, but in various parts of the kingdom, quite ſufficient in themſelves to produce the utmoſt effect that can be reaſonably hoped. It appears indeed, from repreſentations that are made, that corruption, faction, and negligence, prevent the due application of all the means which have been ſo benevolently provided. If ſo, it is anxiouſly to be hoped, that the hand of government will promptly and effectually remedy every abuſe; but having mentioned that portion of the ſubject in this general way, it is not intended to return to it, but merely to ſelect facts, without making obſervations.

THE UNIVERSITY. The only Univerſity in Ireland, is the *College of the Holy and undivided Trinity in Dublin*, which was founded in 1591, to endure for ever, for the inſtruction of youth in the arts and ſciences. Adam Loftus, D.D. Archbiſhop of Dublin, and Lord Chancellor of Ireland, was the firſt provoſt; Henry Uſher, A.M., Luke Chaloner, A.M., and Lancelot Moyne, A.B., were appointed the firſt three fellows, in the name of more; Henry Lee, William Daniel, and Stephen White, the firſt three ſcholars, in the name of more; and ſtatutes and laws were made for its regulation. In 1637, it received a new charter, and another ſet of ſtatutes, which

which made material alterations in the conſtitution. The government of the college at preſent is committed to the provoſt and majority of the ſenior fellows, who are ſeven, and fifteen junior fellows. The King, with conſent of the provoſt, fellows, and ſcholars, forms laws and ſtatutes for its better government. The viſitors are the chancellor, or his vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin. There are beſides five royal profeſſorſhips, viz. *Greek*, *Common Law*, *Civil Law*, *Phyſic*, and *Divinity*; and three conformable to the will of Sir Patrick Dunn, Knt. M.D., *Theory and Practice of Phyſic*; *Chirurgery*, and *Midwifery*; *Pharmacy*, and the *Materia Medica*; as alſo, Profeſſors of the *Oriental Tongues*, *Mathematics*, *Natural Philoſophy*, *Hiſtory*, and *Oratory*; which laſt five mentioned profeſſorſhips, are derived from the bounty of Eraſmus Smyth, Eſq. The late Henry Flood, Eſq., left 4000*l.* per annum to the college, to provide a fund for the maintenance of a profeſſor and ſtudents of the Iriſh language, and for giving premiums for excellence therein. The proviſion for the fellows is ſaid to be better than any other univerſity teachers in Europe.

The College is an extenſive pile of building, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the city; formerly a conſiderable diſtance from, but now entirely ſurrounded by the town. It was built on an open plain, called Hoggin Green, afterward, from the building, College Green: the area at preſent ſo called is a ſpacious open place, gradually narrowing till it joins a wide ſtreet, called Dame-Street, which leads directly to the Exchange and Caſtle. The weſt front of the College faces the avenue up Dame-Street, having the late parliament-houſe on the right hand, and the poſt-office on the left. The plan of the whole exterior, if taken collectively, is a parallelogram, extending in front three hundred feet, and in depth ſix hundred: it conſiſts of two nearly equal courts, lying eaſt and weſt. The eaſt court, which was the whole of the original edifice in the time of Queen Elizabeth, at preſent claims but little reſpect: the buildings are of brick, riſing two ſtories, with a third in the roof. The only object here that invites the attention is the library.

The weſt front of the College is a noble range of building, extending three hundred feet, erected, with great part of the weſt court, in 1759. Through the gateway in the middle of this front, is the only public entrance into the college, leading directly into the principal court, called the Parliament Square, from having been built principally through the munificence of parliament, who granted the Univerſity, at different times, upwards of 40,000*l.* for the purpoſe; it is a fine ſquare, decorated

rated with many architectural embelliſhments, the whole faced with ſtone. In about the middle of the north and ſouth ſides of this ſquare, are two very elegant buildings, directly oppoſite, and exactly ſimilar to each other, each having a portico of four Corinthian pillars thirty-three feet high, ſupporting handſome pediments. On the north ſide is *the chapel;* on the ſouth is *the theatre* for lectures, examinations, and elections; the inſides of each are highly enriched. Between pilaſters down the ſides of the theatre, within, are whole length portraits of native eminent perſons, with a portrait of Queen Elizabeth, the founder of the Univerſity. In the middle of the right ſide, on entrance, is a moſt excellent monument, erected to the memory of Dr. Baldwin, who bequeathed his whole fortune, amounting to 80,000*l.*, to the Univerſity; it repreſents him at the point of death, attended by an angel, and a female figure indicative of the Univerſity: the whole is in ſtatuary marble.

The Refectory makes a very reſpectable appearance; it is contiguous to the chapel, but recedes conſiderably, the front is decorated with four three-quarter Ionic pilaſters ſupporting a pediment, and is aſcended to by a flight of ſteps extending the whole length of the front; within is a ſpacious hall capable of dining three hundred ſtudents, over which is a large room, wherein thoſe ſtudents who form what is called the Hiſtorical Society practiſe oratory. The kitchen and offices immediately adjoin the refectory; and under the hall are cellars and places where the ſtudents receive their daily allowance of October.

The college park, which is to the eaſt of the building, contains about nine acres, well planted with rows of full grown elm, where the ſtudents are permitted to exerciſe at certain hours. In the park, at the ſouth end of the eaſt front of the college, is the anatomy houſe, which contains a great artificial curioſity, being models in wax, formed by a Frenchman named Douane, illuſtrative of the circumſtances attending pregnancy. Oppoſite the anatomy houſe, at the other end of the eaſt front, is the *printing-office*, which is a ſmall Doric temple of ſtone. A *muſeum* has lately been formed in Trinity college, which has made large acquiſitions, particularly in the natural productions of the country, and curious articles from the South Seas.

The Library is a large reſpectable pile of building, 269 feet long, and 50 broad, erected in 1732. The floor is raiſed one lofty ſtory from the ground, which renders it light and airy. The great repoſitory is 208 feet long, 41 broad, and 40 high. The book-caſes are built, and the whole room is caſed, with fine native oak, well framed and richly carved. The caſes for

for the books project from the piers between the windows about nine feet into the room, and, as there are nineteen windows down each ſide, there are thirty-eight double caſes of books, fifteen feet high, containing upwards of 46,000 volumes. Each window-place forms a ſmall receſs, convenient for ſtudy, accommodated with deſks and ſeats down the middle. Over the book-caſes is a gallery all round the room, intended for other receptacles for books, when required.

Many of the books were the gift of Archbiſhop Uſher; they fill ſix caſes, at the upper end of the room, on the right. The two next were the gift of Archdeacon Palliſer; and from that to the end, filling twelve caſes, are the bequeſt of Biſhop Gilbert, in 1749. On the left, from the entrance, is one caſe full, given by a Mr. Butler. The door at the other end of the library is the entrance to the manuſcript repoſitory, where are many curious original papers; many relative to Iriſh Hiſtory, and ſome of high eſtimation, in the Greek, Arabic, and Perſian languages. The times of reading are from eight to ten, in the morning, and from eleven to one, at noon, every day, holydays excepted. Strangers, by proper application, and taking the library oath, which only reſpects the not doing or ſuffering abuſe to the books, may be permitted to read; but no perſon, under any pretence, is ſuffered to take books away. The manuſcript-chamber is fifty-two feet long, twenty-ſix broad, and twenty-two high.

The provoſt's houſe is an elegant commodious building.

By the Act of Settlement, the chief governor or governors of Ireland, with conſent of the privy council, are empowered to erect another college, to be of the univerſity of Dublin, to be called King's College; and out of the lands veſted in the king by that act, to raiſe a yearly revenue, not exceeding 2,000*l.*, by an equal charge upon every 1,000 acres, and to be governed by ſuch laws and conſtitutions as the king, his heirs or ſucceſſors, ſhould, under the great ſeal of England or Ireland, appoint. But this power has not yet been carried into execution.

The government, diſcipline, and degrees in this univerſity are ſo like thoſe in England as not to require particular deſcription.

Free Schools. The Dioceſan free ſchools were eſtabliſhed under the authority of the ſtatute 12 Eliz. c. 1., which enacted, that there ſhould be a free ſchool in every dioceſe in Ireland; that the chief governor for the time being ſhould appoint the ſchoolmaſters in every dioceſe, excepting thoſe of Armagh, Dublin, Meath, and Kildare, of which the reſpective archbiſhops and biſhops were to appoint the maſters; that the ſchool-houſe for every dioceſe, ſhould be erected in the principal ſhire town of

of the dioceſe, at the coſts and charges of the whole dioceſe, without reſpect of freedoms, by the device and overſight of the ordinaries of each dioceſe (or the vicars-general, *ſede vacante*), and the ſheriff of the ſhire; that the chief governor and privy council ſhould appoint ſtipends for the ſchoolmaſters, one third to be paid by the ordinaries of every dioceſe, and the remaining two thirds by the parſons, vicars, prebendaries, and other eccleſiaſtical perſons, by an equal contribution, to be made by the ordinaries.

It appears that free ſchools were actually eſtabliſhed under this act in moſt, if not all, of the dioceſes in Ireland, many of which ſtill exiſt; but they do not appear to have fully anſwered the purpoſes of this inſtitution: before the Reſtoration no account of them appears; after that period, a commiſſion was iſſued by the Lord Lieutenant and council, directing the biſhops of the ſeveral dioceſes to carry the act of 12 Eliz. into effect. Meaſures were accordingly taken in many, and, perhaps, in all the dioceſes; but the means being ſtill incomplete for want of proper ſchool-houſes, and other accommodations for the maſters, in the 12th of George I. an act was paſſed, empowering archbiſhops, biſhops, &c. to ſet apart an acre of ground, out of any lands belonging to them, for the ſite of a free ſchool, to be approved of by the chief governor for the time being; and directing that, until ſuch ground ſhould be ſet out, the ſchool ſhould be kept in ſuch convenient place as the archbiſhop or biſhop of the dioceſe ſhould be able to procure, for a yearly rent or otherwiſe; and further empowering the grand jury of each county to preſent, from time to time, ſuch ſums as they ſhould find reaſonable for their reſpective proportions toward building or repairing the ſchool-houſes in their counties, to be levied on the whole, or ſuch parts thereof, as are ſituated in each reſpective dioceſe. Under this act a conſiderable improvement took place in the ſtate of the dioceſan ſchools; but, as preſentments for the different proportions of each county in the ſeveral dioceſes were found extremely inconvenient, if not impracticable, the grand jury of each county, in which a dioceſan ſchool is ſituated, were, by an act of 29th George II., empowered to preſent ſums to be levied on the whole county for building or repairing the ſchool-houſe; ſtill, however, there are ſeveral dioceſes unprovided with proper ſchool-houſes, and ſome without any, and the general benefit derived from the whole inſtitution is far from correſponding with the intention of the legiſlature, or even with the number of ſchools actually kept, or ſuppoſed to be ſo.

James I. endowed, with lands of conſiderable value, a free ſchool in each of the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, Donegal,

Londonderry, Cavan, and Fermanagh. The firſt Duke of Ormond erected and endowed a ſchool at Kilkenny with a ſmall portion of land, a rent charge of 130*l.* per annum, and a good ſchool-houſe, and habitation for the maſter and ſcholars. Eraſmus Smith, Eſq. endowed the ſchool of Tipperary with one hundred marks, per annum, beſides a ſchool-houſe, garden, and a ſmall parcel of land. The lands annexed to each of theſe eſtabliſhments are as follow; Armagh has 1530 Engliſh acres; Dungannon, 1600; Enniſkillen, 3360; Raphoe, 5964; Cavan, 570; and Banagher and Carysfort, 336.

Charter-Schools. The charter-ſchools were founded in 1733, by George II., for the purpoſe of inſtructing "the children of the Popiſh and other poor natives in the Engliſh tongue." In addition to his Majeſty's grants, ſubſcriptions were raiſed by individuals, all Proteſtants, though Roman Catholics were equally intereſted in the deſign. Theſe individuals formed themſelves into a body, ſtyled "The Incorporated Society," who received, and continue to receive, large parliamentary grants, and, beſides theſe, many bequeſts from private perſons have been added to their funds; but theſe charitable efforts appear to have failed of their end. The children of Catholics alone are admitted; but, it is ſaid, that the elementary books, formerly offered for their inſtruction, contained ſuch decided cenſures of the tenets of the church at Rome, that Catholic parents would not permit their children to receive inſtructions which muſt be blended with doctrines, which, in their conſcience, they are bound to condemn. Theſe publications are diſcontinued, and, it is to be hoped, that the prejudice they excited will ſubſide. From 1802 to 1808, the total number of children maintained, clothed, and educated, was 14,656.

There are ſeveral other eſtabliſhments for education, which partake more of the nature of particular charities than thoſe which have been mentioned. Among them are the following.

The Blue Coat School. The Blue Coat Hoſpital, originally in Queen Street, Oxmantown, was founded in 1670, by Charles II. with a charter and grant of the ground whereon it ſtood. It was at firſt intended as an aſylum for the aged and infirm poor of the city, as well as for their children; but the fund proving unequal to ſuch extenſive charity, after the year 1680, boys only were received, and the number increaſed from about 40 to 170, who are ſupported by voluntary contributions. The children admitted into this hoſpital muſt be ſons of reduced freemen. Ten are received on the foundation of Eraſmus Smith, Eſq.; and two agreeably to the will of Mr. James Southwell, who bequeathed 4,364*l.* to the hoſpital.

The

The corporation of merchants ſupport a mathematical ſchool here, for the inſtruction of ten boys in navigation for the ſea ſervice. The children are dieted and clothed, carefully inſtructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and, when properly qualified, apprenticed with a fee of 5*l.* each, to Proteſtant maſters.

The Blue Coat Hoſpital juſtly merits the appellation of an elegant ſtructure: the judicious proportion of height to extent, and the propriety of decoration diſplayed in this building, produce a very happy effect. It is ſituated on the north ſide of the Liffey; occupying part of a long neglected piece of ground called Oſtman town, or Oxmantown-Green, and is oppoſite a broad opening named Blackall Street. This edifice conſiſts of a centre building, and two wings connected with the centre, by two ſubſervient diviſions, ſcreened in front by two circular walls forming ſweeps between the wings and the centre The body in the middle contains all the apartments for conducting the buſineſs of the hoſpital, with others for the reſidence of the officers of the eſtabliſhment. The chapel is fitted up with taſte and elegance; and the interior of the whole ſtructure is conſpicuous both for beauty and convenience. This noble building, forming an extent in front of 300 feet, is faced with Portland ſtone. The centre pile is 85 feet long, by 58 broad, and 44 high. The tower is 130 feet high to the ball under the vane. The chapel is 65 feet long, 32 broad, and 32 high; and its correſponding wing is of the ſame dimenſions. The foundation ſtone was laid on the 16th of June 1773, by his Excellency the Earl of Harcourt, then Viceroy of Ireland.

The Hibernian Society's School. This ſociety was formed in 1765, for the eminently laudable purpoſe of maintaining, educating, apprenticing or placing in the army the orphans and children of ſoldiers in Ireland. The plan is perſevered in with great ſpirit and ſucceſs; the ſchool is in the Phœnix Park, Dublin, and the number of pupils in it is generally between 4 and 500.

Hibernian Marine Society. During the war in 1760, a number of gentlemen formed a plan for promoting the ſervice of the navy, by clothing men and boys, and otherwiſe encouraging them to enter, by which many hands were obtained. Peace rendering ſuch exertions no longer neceſſary, the idea was conceived of founding a permanent eſtabliſhment, which ſhould aid the commercial intereſt in times of peace, and the national marine in war, by protecting, ſupporting, and inſtructing the male children of ſeafaring men. In 1766, the ſociety firſt opened a houſe at Ring's-end, for the reception of 20 boys, which

which number by the increaſe of benefactions, they enlarged to 60, and upwards. Experience confirmed ſo fully the utility of the undertaking, that, in 1768, a plot of ground was taken at the lower end of Sir John Rogerſon's Quay; and in 1773, the new houſe was opened: a charter was obtained in 1775 appointing the ſociety governors, and the Lord Lieutenant, for the time being, preſident. There are ſeven vice-preſidents, and a committee of 15. A ſubſcription of 20 guineas entitles the donor to be a governor for life. There are now on the foundation, and moſt conſtantly is, about 120 boys, who are carefully inſtructed in the principles of navigation by an able mathematician who reſides in the houſe, and has a liberal ſalary.

College of Maynooth. The eſtabliſhment of the Roman Catholic Univerſity at Maynooth, in the county of Kildare, was an act of the Iriſh parliament. Till 1793, a Roman Catholic was not permitted to become a ſtudent in the univerſity in Dublin; conſequently, all young men intended for the church were obliged to take their degrees in foreign univerſities. Before the repeal of the greater part of the penal code the war with France had commenced and extended to Spain. The Iriſh Catholics therefore did not find it eaſy to ſend a ſufficient number of perſons abroad for education. This inconvenience being ſtrongly felt, and the time appearing favourable, the Catholics obtained permiſſion to eſtabliſh an univerſity for ſtudents of their own perſuaſion under a charter of incorporation, that the funds raiſed to ſupport it might be legally ſecured. Parliament at the ſame time voted money to aſſiſt them. The eſtabliſhment is under the inſpection of the chancellor and chief judges; parliament voted annually 8,000*l.*, and afterward, this ſum was increaſed to 13,000*l.*

The College at Maynooth accommodates 200 ſtudents with lodgings; affords them commons and inſtruction; ſupplies them in the public halls with coals and candles during ſtudying hours. Each ſtudent pays 9*l.* 2*s.* entrance money; provides himſelf with clothes, books, bedding and chamber furniture, pays for waſhing, mending, and candle light for his room. This expence may be moderately eſtimated at 20*l.* per annum. Each ſtudent before admiſſion muſt deliver to the preſident authentic certificates of his age, parentage, baptiſm, and of having taken the oath of allegiance, together with the recommendation of his prelates. He is then examined in the claſſics, and admitted, if approved by the major part of the examiners.

THE LAW.

The law of Ireland is in all its great outlines ſimilar to that of England; the ſlight variances between them ariſe only from the different views which two legiſlatures independent on each other would adopt in applying particular regulations to the ſame objects, although both aimed at the ſame end, and both had the ſame general means of attaining it.

Courts. The law is adminiſtered in Ireland as in England in Courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. Theſe in their conſtitution and offices are exactly on the plan of thoſe in England, the only difference being in the ſalaries and emoluments of their judges and officers.

Hall of Justice. The four courts of law were formerly holden under one roof in Chriſt-church-lane, and until 1695 they were ſeparate and ambulatory, being removed as convenience and ſafety made it expedient. Sometimes they were holden at Carlow, ſometimes at Drogheda, but moſtly in the caſtle of Dublin. The building erected for the Courts of Law, commonly called the Four Courts, with the addition of the law offices adjoining, is an extenſive and truly elegant pile, ſituated on the Inns' Quay, on the north ſide of the river, about a quarter of a mile weſtward of Eſſex Bridge, and eaſy of acceſs from all quarters of the city.

The whole edifice forms an oblong rectangle of 440 feet in front, to the river, and 170 feet deep, to the rear. The centre pile 140 feet ſquare, divides off the law offices, and forms two court yards, one to the eaſt, the other to the weſt; which courts are ſhut out from the ſtreet by handſome ſcreen walls, perforated in arches. The middle ſtructure contains the courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas, with all requiſite conveniences for the diſcharge of buſineſs. The outſide is adorned with ſtatues. From the ſtreet is an aſcent of five ſteps to the portico, with the great door of entrance in the centre of a ſemi-circular receſs, conducting through an oblong veſtibule into the great hall under the dome, into which is a deſcent of five ſteps. To have a clear conception of the diſpoſition of the various apartments of the inſide, as they are arranged around the circular hall, it is neceſſary firſt to conceive the plan well; which may be diſtinctly delineated in the imagination, by figuring a circle of 64 feet diameter, inſcribed in the centre of a ſquare of 140 feet, with the four courts radiating from the circle to the angles of the ſquare, like the four ſails of a windmill. In the ſpaces between the courts are diſpoſed convenient and handſome rooms

rooms for the judges, jurors, and officers. In the circular hall are eight ſimilar openings. One from the portico at entrance, the oppoſite to which leads to a ſpacious apartment called the Chancery Chamber, under which is an extenſive coffee room, with other conveniences; the openings at right angles with the two juſt mentioned communicate to the rooms for the judges and jurors; and the four others open to the reſpective courts, as already obſerved. In each of the above openings ſtand four columns, two in depth on each ſide. In the piers, between the openings, are niches and ſunk pannels. The columns around the hall are of the Corinthian order, 25 feet high, fluted in the upper two thirds of the ſhafts, and ſtand upon a ſub-plinth that contains the ſteps of aſcent into the courts and avenues. The entablature is continued around unbroken, above which is an attic pedeſtal, having in the dado eight ſunk pannels correſponding and over the eight openings below, between the columns. In the pannels, over the entrances into the courts, are hiſtorical pieces in bas relief, repreſenting four great events in the Britiſh hiſtory. From the attic ſprings a dome nearly hemiſpherical, having a large circular opening in the centre around which is a gallery. Through the opening is ſeen the void between the interior and exterior domes; the ſame in effect as is ſeen in the Cathedral of St. Paul's, London. The hall is lighted by eight windows in the dome, over the eight pannels of the attic; the large apertures in the cylinder without communicate to the windows within, whence flows a power of light, which completely as well as beautifully illumes the whole. Between the windows in the dome are eight colloſſal ſtatues in alto relievo, ſtanding on conſoles, emblematical of liberty, juſtice, wiſdom, law, prudence, mercy, eloquence, and puniſhment. A rich frieze of foliage takes its riſe over the heads of the above ſtatues, and extends around the dome. In the frieze, over each window, are medallions of eight ancient lawgivers. The interior of the hall is ſimple, elegant, and magnificent. As the four corners are ſimilar, and of equal dimenſions, a particular deſcription of one will anſwer for all. On riſing five ſteps, and removing a curtain immediately at the back of the columns, the court is entered; a wainſcot ſkreen croſſes it, having a door at each extremity for the admiſſion of counſel, attornies, and witneſſes. On each ſide is a gallery, one for the jury, the other for the ſheriff and other officers. The judges ſit in a cove formed by a niche in the end of the court, with ſemi-eliptical ſounding boards over their heads. Each court is lighted by ſix windows, three on each ſide, above the cornice, which is on a level with the cornice over the columns of the hall. Level with the

galleries are apartments for the jurors to retire. This extenſive building was begun in 1776, the foundation ſtone of the part containing the courts was laid, with the uſual ceremony, on the 13th of March 1786, by His Grace Charles Duke of Rutland, then Lord-Lieutenant, attended by the Lord Chancellor and great law officers.

Formerly barriſters were not called in Ireland, unleſs they had kept a certain number of terms in an inn of court in England; at preſent keeping terms in England will be counted as part of the ſtudent's progreſs toward the bar in Ireland, but the terms may be kept altogether in Dublin.

Circuits. In Ireland as in England the judges of the three common law courts go on circuits in the ſpring and ſummer of every year. The kingdom is divided into ſix circuits, compriſing the following counties:

Home. — Kildare, Carlow, Queen's County, King's County, Weſtmeath, and Meath.

Leinſter. — Wicklow, Wexford, Waterford, city of Waterford, Tipperary, Kilkenny, and city of Kilkenny.

North-eaſt. — County Town of Drogheda, Louth, Monaghan, Armagh, Antrim, and Down.

North-weſt. — Longford, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Donegal, and City and County of Londonderry.

Munſter. — Clare, Limerick, City of Limerick, Kerry, City of Cork, and County of Cork.

Connaught. — Roſcommon, Leitrim, Sligo, Mayo, Galway, Town of Galway.

Sessions. At the Quarter Seſſions each county is generally divided into four diſtricts; but this for the moſt part depends upon their ſize, and the Seſſions are held in turn at ſome towns in each. Inferior judges, called aſſiſtant barriſters, are appointed to help with legal information the country magiſtrates, with whom they ſit upon the bench; the ſalary is 500*l.* per annum. As there is no poor rate nor parochial ſettlement in Ireland, the buſineſs would be very little, but indictments are numerous, and in theſe courts of Quarter Seſſions debts not exceeding 10*l.* are recovered.

REVENUE.

History. The account given by Sir John Sinclair of the revenue of Ireland is to the following effect.

During a long courſe of years after the acquiſition of at leaſt part of Ireland, hiſtorians record but few important particulars connected with the preſent ſubject. In the twelfth

year of the reign of John, indeed, we are told, that a court of exchequer was erected for the management of the revenue. It also appears, that during the government of Henry III. his Iriſh as well as his Engliſh ſubjects, had juſt reaſon to complain of his exactions, and of the oppreſſions of his miniſters. His ſon Edward I. not ſatisfied with drawing a revenue from Ireland, endeavoured to borrow money for carrying on hoſtilities againſt the Welch; and while Edward II. ſat upon the throne, ſuch, it ſhould ſeem, were the confuſion and diſorders in Ireland, particularly after the invaſion of Edward Bruce, that the only mode by which the Engliſh army could be maintained was by impoſing *coigne* and *livery*; that is by extorting money and proviſions, by force, from the wretched inhabitants.

The amount of the income which Edward III. enjoyed from Ireland has been not a little controverted. On the one hand, Walſingham and Hollingſhead poſitively aſſert, that it amounted to 30,000*l.* a-year, whereas Sir John Davis, who ſeems carefully to have examined the Iriſh records, affirms, that it never came to 10,000*l.* The moſt important financial tranſaction that took place under the government of Richard II. was a tax upon *abſentees*. Richard himſelf thought it neceſſary to paſs into Ireland, with a view of completing the conqueſt. But he neither extended his poſſeſſions, nor made any addition to his revenue. Henry IV. was too much occupied in ſecuring his crown, and Henry V. in his enterprize againſt France, to pay much attention to the affairs of Ireland. To ſuch a height had the diſorders of that country ariſen, that in 1433 the revenue was reduced to 2339*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.*, while the expences of government exceeded the annual income by 18*l.* 17*s.* 5½*d.* In the reign of Henry VI. Richard Duke of York undertook the charge of that kingdom, demanding, however, not only the whole revenue of Ireland, (which he was to receive without being in any reſpect accountable,) but alſo ſtipulated, that he ſhould be ſupplied from England, for the firſt year, with 4000 marks, and afterwards with 2000*l.* per annum.

Nor were the finances of Ireland in a better ſtate during the ſhort period that the Houſe of York ſat upon the throne. It was thought neceſſary to have a ſtanding force of 140 horſemen to aſſiſt the militia of the country in defending the Engliſh pale; yet the expence of that ſmall troop, although only 500*l.* per annum, was ſuppoſed to exceed the reſources of the Iriſh government; and it was thought neceſſary to aſſure the deputy, that money ſhould be ſent from England, if the Iriſh revenue ſhould prove unequal to the propoſed eſtabliſhment. In the inſtructions, alſo, which were given to the officers of ſtate at that time, they were ſpecially enjoined, that no more than one

ſubſidy not to exceed 1200 marks, or 800*l.*, as *hath been accuſtomed*, ſhould be demanded in any one year.

It may be proper here to mention, that by an act of the Engliſh parliament, abſentees from Ireland were made again ſubject to certain ſpecified taxes for the purpoſe of raiſing a ſupply to defend the Engliſh ſettlements from the attacks of the Iriſh; and although parliaments were then held in Ireland, yet the Engliſh legiſlature claimed and enjoyed a controuling and ſuperintending authority over thoſe aſſemblies. Receivers and triers of petitions, as they were called, were appointed for Ireland, as often as an Engliſh parliament was aſſembled; and it appears that in the eighth year of Edward II. ſeveral lords of Ireland were ſummoned to a parliament at Weſtminſter, to conſult upon the general buſineſs of the two kingdoms. Henry VII. procured an act, impoſing a duty of 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* on every ſix-ſcore acres of arable land, to continue for five years. In his reign, alſo, a duty of one ſhilling in the pound on all goods imported or exported (wine and oil only excepted) was firſt laid, throughout the whole kingdom; and at the ſame time, a ſubſidy of thirteen ſhillings and four-pence on every plow-land, was granted for ten years. During the reign of Henry VIII. ſome addition was made to the revenue of Ireland, by the ſuppreſſion of religious houſes, and by veſting the eccleſiaſtical property in the crown. The former laws againſt abſentees were alſo revived and enforced; two-thirds of their annual income were appropriated to the public ſervice; and the ſubſidy of thirteen and four-pence for each plow-land was regularly voted as neceſſary for the maintenance of the Engliſh government againſt the efforts of the natives.

From the death of Henry VIII. nothing remarkable occurs, with regard to the preſent ſubject, until the acceſſion of Elizabeth. This ſpirited and able ſovereign was more unſucceſsful in her government of Ireland than in any other political undertaking. The ſtrict attention to economy, by which her reign was diſtinguiſhed, was ill ſuited to the circumſtances of that country, and the exertions neceſſary to preſerve it in a ſtate of tranquillity and ſubjection, particularly after Philip King of Spain had begun to tamper with the Iriſh, and to incite them to rebellion. The ordinary income of the kingdom amounted only to 6000*l.* per annum. Twenty thouſand pounds additional were remitted from England in aid of that inconſiderable revenue, but this ſum was paid with much repining, and not very punctually; and when Perrot, the Lord-Deputy, engaged, if the remittances were augmented to 50,000*l.* for only three years, to encompaſs and ſtrengthen the whole realm, with royal garriſons connected by an eaſy and

ſecure

ſecure communication, the propoſal was rejected both by the Queen and the Engliſh parliament, as by far too expenſive. The evil being thus neglected, and the government left in a ſtate of weakneſs, the native Iriſh were encouraged to revolt, and a flame burſt out which could not be extinguiſhed, until England was put to heavier charges than any war, whether foreign or domeſtic, had ever before required, the large ſum of 3,400,000*l.* being expended in quelling the inſurrection.

The revenue of Ireland, during the reign of James I., ſtill continued inadequate to the public expences, to the amount, it is ſuppoſed, of 16,000*l.* per annum. The income of the different branches however was increaſing. The cuſtoms, which formerly had hardly yielded 50*l.* yearly, were gradually raiſed to 3000*l.*, and ultimately to 9700*l.* per annum. The prerogative of wardſhip, and other feudal rights belonging to the crown, of old of little value, were brought to produce 10,000*l.* annually. The crown rents alſo were more ſtrictly collected; and the foundation of a great increaſe was laid by a new plantation in the province of Ulſter. But all was inſufficient. Beſide the expences of the civil government, the troops maintained in Ireland, although reduced from about twenty thouſand to the inconſiderable number of 1350 foot and about 200 horſe, coſt no leſs than 52,500*l.* per annum. It was to defray the expence of the army in Ireland, that Engliſh baronets were firſt created, by which 98,500*l.* were raiſed; in addition to which, the ſum of 247,433*l.* was remitted from England, to diſcharge the debts due in Ireland, in the time of Queen Elizabeth, and to pay ſeveral extraordinary charges above the uſual eſtabliſhment.

One ſubſidy was granted to James, by the Iriſh parliament; it was a tax of 2*s.* 8*d.* in the pound on every perſonal eſtate of the value of 3*l.* per annum and upwards, and twice that ſum on aliens; and on real eſtates, of the value of twenty ſhillings and upwards, four-pence in the pound was impoſed. The King was ſo delighted with this liberal grant, that he enjoined the Lord-Deputy to aſſure the Iriſh, that he held his ſubjects there in equal favour with thoſe of his other kingdoms, and that he ſhould be as careful to provide for their proſperous and flouriſhing ſtate as for the ſafety of his own perſon.

The government of Charles I., in ſo far as relates to the revenue of Ireland, may be divided into three periods. The firſt, from his acceſſion to the appointment of the Earl of Strafford as Lord-Lieutenant: the ſecond terminates with the government of that unfortunate miniſter; and the third period comprehends the remaining part of Charles's reign.

Before Strafford was ſent to Ireland, this monarch did not ſeem to have known in what manner that country ought to be treated. Finding ſome difficulties in procuring money to pay his forces there, he ſcrupled not to give directions, that the army ſhould be quartered in the different counties and towns of Ireland; and they were ordered to furniſh them, by turns, for three months at a time, with money, clothes, and victuals. The hopes of extorting ſome favourable conceſſions from the King's neceſſities, made his Iriſh ſubjects ſubmit, with leſs reluctance, to ſo heavy and unuſual a burthen.

A conteſt was afterwards carried on for ſome time between Charles and the Iriſh, which of them ſhould beſt deceive, or outwit the other. The Iriſh ſent agents to the court, who made a liberal offer of granting a voluntary contribution to the amount of 120,000*l.* to be paid in three years, at the rate of 40,000*l.* per annum, in conſideration of which, certain graces, or regulations in their favour, were required; but the King had no inclination to part with his power, and his ſubjects in Ireland were reſolved, unleſs their wiſhes were complied with, not to part with their property. The conſequence was a ſtruggle which of them ſhould ſucceed beſt, by intrigue and artifice, in the courſe of which both were mutually diſſatisfied. The Iriſh, however, obtained ſome ſtipulations in their favour; and they agreed to pay the voluntary ſubſidy, at the rate of five, inſtead of 10,000*l.* per quarter. It was afterwards continued at the rate of 20,000*l.* per annum, for two years, during Strafford's adminiſtration. The principal object which that miniſter had in view was to improve the revenue, and conſequently to relieve the neceſſities of his royal maſter. In that attempt he was far from being unſucceſsful, inſomuch, that in a letter to the King, dated 15th July, 1638, he aſſerted, that he had advanced the revenue there from 4300*l.*, to 8800*l.* a-year. The rents payable to the crown were greatly increaſed. Conſiderable ſums were raiſed by fines when letters patent were renewed, and plantations were granted. Six ſubſidies were unanimouſly given by the laity, and eight by the clergy; and ſo full had the exchequer become, that the Lord-Lieutenant was able to ſend over 30,000*l.* to the King, when the Scots firſt began to oppoſe his authority. Such grants, however, were too heavy to be frequently renewed. It is ſaid, that one year's aſſeſſment on the Earl of Cork amounted to 3600*l.*; and it was thought neceſſary for the Commons to reſolve, in order to prevent ſuch oppreſſion for the future, that no ſubject ſhould be taxed for more than a tenth part of his eſtate, real and perſonal, which they called a moderate, parliamentary, eaſy, and equal rate.

With

With regard to the income of Ireland, during the reign of this monarch, after the Earl of Strafford's death, it is only neceſſary to remark, that the Iriſh were with difficulty prevailed upon to grant the King 30,000*l.*; one half to be paid in money at different periods; and the other half in cattle. And when the Lords Juſtices, reduced to the laſt neceſſity for ſupplies to maintain the forces, ventured, without any authority from the Crown, to eſtabliſh an exciſe, ſuch was the poverty of the country, that, although the duty was laid at one half of the value of the commodity, it did not prove in any degree productive.

The nature and value of the Iriſh revenue is better known while it was ſubject to the military government of Cromwell, than at any former era. The following ſtatement of it was laid before the Engliſh Parliament in 1659:

By the aſſeſſment of 9000*l.* a-month - -	£108,000
By the cuſtoms and exciſe in farm - -	70,000
By rents of lands, houſes, &c. - - -	2,679
By rents of impropriations, &c. - -	7,611
By ſheriffs' accounts, the hanaper account, with fines and amerciaments - - -	1,500
Total annual income of Ireland	£207,790

The expences were thus ſtated:

The pay of the army - - -	£3 1,582	5	4
The Lord Lieutenant - - -	3,864	8	11
The Council and their clerks - -	7,600	0	0
The Court of Chancery - -	2,258	0	0
The Upper Bench - - -	1,167	10	0
The Common Pleas - - -	1,007	10	0
The Exchequer - - - -	1,991	15	0
The Juſtices of Aſſize - - -	1,000	0	0
The Preſident of Connaught, and the Provoſt-martial of Leinſter and Munſter -	1,887	0	0
The overſeers of Dublin Hoſpital, &c. -	1,807	8	4
To eight receivers of the revenue -	165	0	0
To eight comptrollers and ſearchers of the cuſtoms - - - - -	1,150	0	0
Penſions to maimed ſoldiers and their widows and orphans - - -	3,000	0	0
Allowances, contingencies, and caſual iſſues	8,000	0	0
Total	£346,480	17	7

Thus

Thus it appears, that the revenue of Ireland at that time was deficient to the amount of about 138,790*l.* per annum.

It is alſo to be obſerved, that the above revenue, however inadequate it was to the expences of government, was procured with the utmoſt difficulty, and raiſed by means the moſt oppreſſive; and nothing but the wiſe, juſt, and liberal adminiſtration of Henry Cromwell, the Protector's ſon, could have prevented perpetual inſurrections among the natives, notwithſtanding all the military force that exiſted in that country.

The deſtruction of the protectoral government, and the reſtoration of the royal family to the throne, was celebrated with as much zeal and loyalty in Ireland as in any part of His Majeſty's dominions; as an evidence of which, the convention of eſtates voted a preſent of 20,000*l.* to His Majeſty, 4000*l.* to the Duke of York, and 2000*l.* to the Duke of Glouceſter; imitating in this reſpect the example of the Engliſh legiſlature: and when the Iriſh parliament was aſſembled, it gave ſtill more ample teſtimonies of its regard to the crown, by granting, 1. An hereditary revenue to the King, his heirs and ſucceſſors. 2. An exciſe for the purpoſe of maintaining the army. 3. The ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage to defray naval charges. And 4. a tax on hearths, at the rate of 2*s.* per annum, for the ſupport and dignity of the crown, and by way of compenſation for the abolition of the court of wards, and the profits attending it.

The amount of the Iriſh revenue during this reign can be pretty nearly aſcertained. At firſt, it was inadequate to the public expences; and the Duke of Ormond, when appointed Lord-Lieutenant, found it neceſſary, at one time, to draw on the Engliſh treaſury for 15,000*l.* It afterwards aroſe to 300,000*l.* a-year; of which 36,000*l.* were expended on ſhips to ſecure the coaſt of Ireland, and 44,000*l.* in ſupporting the garriſon of Tangiers, while that fortreſs was kept poſſeſſion of. Private grants alſo were occaſionally conferred by the King's expreſs directions.

In regard to the temporary grants during this reign, they were not very numerous; and the produce of each it is difficult now to aſcertain.

At one period, there was ſuch a ſcarcity of ſpecie in Ireland, that the Lord-Lieutenant found it neceſſary to accept of the payment of part of the ſubſidies, not in money, but in proviſions: and when the fire of London naturally excited the compaſſion and humanity of thoſe who were themſelves exempted from ſo dreadful a calamity, a ſubſcription being raiſed for the unhappy ſufferers, 30,000 beeves, the principal species of wealth which the country afforded, were ſubſcribed for that generous purpoſe.

The oppreſſion and miſconduct of thoſe whom James II. had truſted had ſo much reduced the revenue, that when he perſonally attempted to preſerve that part of his dominions, he was reduced to the moſt deſperate expedients. By one act of parliament, the real eſtates of thoſe who did not immediately acknowledge his authority, or who aided his opponents, were forfeited, and the perſonal eſtates of all abſentees veſted in the crown. The native Iriſh had granted a monthly ſubſidy of 20,000*l.* to be levied on the land; but that being inſufficient for his military expenditure, he exacted, by his own authority, a ſimilar tax upon perſonal property. The iſſuing of baſe money, however, was the circumſtance of which his Iriſh ſubjects had the greateſt reaſon to complain.

James, it ſeems, had ſeized the tools and engines of one Moore, who, by virtue of a patent from Charles II., enjoyed the right of a copper coinage, eſtabliſhed mints at Dublin and Limerick. Braſs and copper of the baſeſt kind, old cannon, broken bells, houſehold utenſils, were collected; and from every pound weight of ſuch materials, valued at four-pence, pieces were coined and circulated to the amount of five pounds in nominal value. This wretched compoſition was made a legal tender in certain caſes; it ſerved for the pay of the troops, and by them it was poured on the Proteſtant traders. The nominal value was raiſed by ſubſequent proclamations; and as braſs and copper grew ſcarce, it was made of ſtill viler materials, of tin and pewter. It was obtruded on Proteſtants with many circumſtances of inſolence and cruelty. Old debts of 1000*l.* were diſcharged by pieces of vile metal, amounting to thirty ſhillings in intrinſic value. Attempts were made to purchaſe gold and ſilver at immoderate rates with the braſs money; but this was quickly forbidden on pain of death; and when the Proteſtants attempted to exonerate themſelves of theſe heaps of coin, by purchaſing the ſtaple commodities of the kingdom, James, by proclamation, ſet a rate on theſe commodities, demanded them at this rate, returned his braſs on the proprietors, and, with all the meanneſs of a trader, exported them to France. It appeared indeed in the end, that James was the only gainer by this iniquitous project; and that in the final courſe of circulation, his own party became poſſeſſed of the greateſt part of this adulterate coin, juſt at the time when William had power to ſuppreſs it by proclamation.

The reign of William III. was an intereſting period, fraught with important conſequences to the population, property, and general ſtate of Ireland. The military expences of his war with James amounted to 3,851,655*l.*, and, from the ſtate of the

the country, a ſpeedy revenue could not be expected. The Public Revenue, from the landing of Duke Schomberg, on the 13th Auguſt, 1689, to the commencement of the year 1703, was; in—

	£
1689 - -	8,884
1690 - -	93,910
1691 - -	274,949
1692 - -	393,926
1693 - -	444,183
1694 - -	430,034
1695 - -	438,304
1696 - -	513,534
1697 - -	548,967
1698 - -	601,846
1699 - -	710,932
1700 - -	766,620
1701 - -	697,955
1702 - -	581,886

Theſe ſums were ſo inadequate to their purpoſes, that, had not government been ſupported with money remitted from the Engliſh exchequer, Ireland muſt have been, perhaps, for ever, ſeparated from that country. It was expected that the forfeitures which took place after the Revolution would reimburſe the Engliſh nation, but notwithſtanding the great exertions of the Engliſh Houſe of Commons, intereſt, favour, and ſometimes a juſt regard to meritorious ſervices, rendered this reſource of little avail. A poll tax was tried here, as it was in England and Scotland, but, after a ſhort experience of its inefficacy, this obnoxious and unproductive ſyſtem was abandoned in the three kingdoms.

During the earlier years of Queen Anne's reign, the income of Ireland exceeded half a million: in her latter days it was leſs productive.

In the reign of George I. the revenue did not materially differ from that of his predeceſſor. The groſs income for two years, ending 25th March, 1723, amounted to 1,242,815*l.*, but the net produce only to 939,619*l.*, or at the rate of 469,809*l.* per annum.

The moſt remarkable event connected with the financial and commercial circumſtances of the country, during this monarch's reign, was an application for the eſtabliſhment of a bank, in 1720, and the ſteps which were taken by parliament on the ſubject.

It is not known who was the author of this propoſal, but it was entered into by the Earl of Abercorn, and ſeveral other lords

lords and gentlemen of Ireland, with great zeal, and its eſtabliſhment recommended in a ſpeech from the throne; but the Commons, on a diviſion of 150 to 80, reſolved againſt it, and declared "that if any member of the Houſe, or commoner of Ireland, ſhould preſume to ſolicit, or endeavour to procure, any grant, or to get the great ſeal put to any charter, for erecting a public bank, contrary to the declared ſenſe and reſolutions of the Houſe, he ſhould incur their higheſt diſpleaſure, and be deemed to act in contempt of the authority of the Houſe, and *an enemy to his country*."

During the reign of George II. there was an accumulation of an unappropriated ſurplus fund, amounting to 471,404*l.* at the diſpoſal of the crown or of parliament. This redundancy of treaſure, inſtead of being employed for purpoſes of real national improvement, was almoſt entirely waſted in grants, oſtenſibly for public, but really for private purpoſes. This ſyſtem was ſo little concealed, that the committee of ſupply, in which theſe jobs originated, was emphatically called "*the ſcrambling committee*."

The progreſs of the Iriſh revenue during the reign of George III. cannot be minutely detailed in a work of this nature. It may be ſufficient to obſerve, that at the commencement, in 1760, the groſs produce of the duties and taxes for that and the ſucceeding year were at the rate of 731,590*l.* per annum.

The following is the ſtate of the Revenue for ten years, ending 25th March:

	£
1791 - -	1,190,684
1792 - -	1,172,332
1793 - -	1,107,940
1794 - -	1,067,004
1795 - -	1,355,181
1796 - -	1,376,980
1797 - -	1,527,628
1798 - -	1,645,714
1799 - -	1,861,471
1800 - -	2,684,261
	14,989,195
Average,	1,498,919

The general expences of Ireland, independent of military charges, amounted in 1799 to the following ſums:

1. Civil

	£
1. Civil list	143,096
2. Penſions	110,433
3. Permanent parliamentary grants	154,769
4. Annual parliamentary grants	225,306
	633,604
5. Military expences, anno 1799	4,958,208
Total	5,591,812

This great expenditure does not include the intereſt of the national debt, of which the following is an account, as it ſtood on the 25th of March, 1800:

1. Principal of the debt	£25,662,640	0	0
2. Amount of capital redeemed	339,863	16	0
3. Annual intereſt	1,136,563	11	1
4. Intereſt of the capital purchaſed	16,993	3	9
5. Sinking-fund	252,690	3	4
6. Management	6,500	0	0
7. Total charges	1,395,753	14	5

It was attended with conſiderable difficulty to adjuſt the principles on which the expenditure of the two iſlands, independent of the intereſt of the national debt, to which they were reſpectively liable, ought to be regulated after the Union. It was at laſt determined, that the expenditure of the United Kingdom ſhould be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts for Great Britain, and two parts for Ireland. At the expiration of twenty years, the future expenditure to be defrayed in ſuch proportion as the united parliament ſhould deem juſt and reaſonable, upon certain data then fixed; which proportions may be reviſed at periods not more diſtant than twenty years, nor leſs than ſeven years from each other; unleſs, previous to any ſuch period, the united parliament ſhall have declared that the general expences of the empire ſhall be defrayed indiſcriminately, by equal taxes impoſed on the like articles in both countries.

NATIONAL DEBT. The government of Ireland was occaſionally indebted in ſmall ſums, not exceeding from one to four hundred thouſand pounds, at different periods, from 1715 to 1749, when the accumulation before noticed took place. The preſent debt properly commenced in the year 1761, and its progreſs for ſome time, as appears from the following ſtatement, was very ſlow indeed, compared to the rapid ſtrides which it has ſince taken.

Progreſs

Progreſs of the National Debt of Ireland.

Debt, anno	1761	- -	£223,438
	1771	- -	773,320
	1781	- -	1,551,704
	1791	- -	2,464,590
	1797	- -	7,082,256
	1798	- -	11,059,256
	1799	- -	17,466,540
	1800	- -	25,662,640
January	1801	- -	31,950,656
	1802	- -	36,464,461
	1803	- -	40,663,532
	1804	- -	44,749,325

This debt, in the year which ended with January 1813, was increaſed to 79,339,057*l.* 17*s.* 8¾*d.*, of which 60,176,751*l.* were guaranteed by and payable in Great Britain, and 19,162,306*l.* 17*s.* 8¾*d.* in Ireland.

For reduction of this debt means have been adopted ſimilar to thoſe uſed in reſpect to the national debt of England.

EXPENDITURE. The expenditure of Ireland is now divided into two branches. The firſt conſiſts of thoſe charges to which it is ſeparately liable; the ſecond includes thoſe to which it is ſubject jointly with Great Britain. The ſeparate charges of Ireland are, 1ſt. Intereſt and charges of the national debt, anno 1803; 2d. Intereſt on exchequer bills; 3d. Iſſues for grants prior to the Union; 4th. Funds appropriated for local purpoſes. The payments made for grants prior to the Union were, 1ſt. Relief of ſuffering loyaliſts; 2d. Union compenſation; 3d. Grant for inland navigation; 4th. Lottery prizes; 5th. Principal of Exchequer bills; 6th. Diſcount on prompt payment of loan depoſits.

The expences in which Great Britain and Ireland, in conformity to the articles of the Union, are jointly concerned, are as follows: 1ſt. Civil liſt; 2d. Penſions; 3d. Other permanent charges; 4th. Bounties; 5th. Militia and deſerters' warrants; 6th. Ordnance; 7th. Army; 8th. Extraordinaries of the army; and, 9th. Miſcellaneous ſervices.

BANK. Mention has been made of the failure of a plan in the reign of George the Firſt for eſtabliſhing a bank in Ireland. The attempt was made with better ſucceſs in the times of George the Third.

The firſt act paſſed in favour of this inſtitution was in 1781–2. The original capital was only 600,000*l.*, and the privileges

privileges which it obtained were to ceaſe on twelve months' notice after the firſt of January, 1794. By a ſubſequent act, the capital was increaſed to 1,000,000*l.*, and the term enlarged to the firſt of January, 1816; and by a third act, without prolonging the term, power was given to increaſe the capital to 1,500,000*l.*, at which ſum it now ſtands. No perſon was allowed to ſubſcribe more than 10,000*l.* The corporation have a common ſeal, and the uſual attendant privileges. They may ſue and be ſued in the ſame manner as any other corporate body; and they are enabled alſo to hold lands and tenements in fee ſimple.

The Bank is conducted by a governor, a deputy-governor, and fifteen directors; eight or more of whom (the governor or deputy-governor being one) are a court. They are elected by the proprietors of ſtock to the amount of 500*l.*, between the 25th of March and the 25th of April in every year; but no more than two-thirds of thoſe who were directors in the preceding year can be choſen. The qualification for a governor is 4,000*l.* ſterling, and for a deputy governor, 3000*l.* Theſe muſt be natural-born ſubjects, or naturalized. A director muſt poſſeſs 2,000*l.* ſtock; and no perſon can hold that office till he has taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration. All voters except Quakers were uſed to take the ſame oaths; but Roman Catholics now take that appointed by act of Parliament. Four general courts are held every year, and a general court may be ſummoned at any time. The governor and deputy-governor are allowed each 150*l.* per annum, and each director 100*l.*

The other banking eſtabliſhments, according to Mr. Colquhoun, are,

Thirty in Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Belfaſt, and other large towns, whoſe united capitals may poſſibly amount to - - - - -	£ 700,000
Thirty-three in the ſmaller towns, whoſe united capitals may poſſibly amount to - - -	700,000
Total	£ 1,400,000

TRADE.

On the ſubject of internal commerce it is neceſſary, in the firſt place, to conſider the means of communication which nature and induſtry have afforded.

Rivers

RIVERS AND CANALS. Ireland is ſingularly bleſt with the advantages of conveyance by water. The bays and inlets of the ſea ſupply numerous harbours, and its rivers and lakes facilitate communication among the various parts of the country.

After ſeveral unſucceſsful attempts to improve the internal communication by water, commiſſioners or undertakers were appointed in the reign of George II. who were to proceed at their own coſt, but were authoriſed to impoſe certain tolls and duties for repayment of the expence, and for ſupport of the neceſſary works. Afterward, inſtead of theſe commiſſioners or undertakers, a new and perpetual council was created, under the title of "The Corporation for promoting and carrying on an Inland Navigation in Ireland," compoſed of the Lord Lieutenant or Chief Governor, the Archbiſhop of Armagh, the Lord Chancellor or Lord Keeper, the three other Archbiſhops, the Speaker of the Houſe of Commons for the time being, and twenty commiſſioners from each of the four provinces of Ireland, with a power of filling up vacancies by election.

CANALS. The *Grand Canal* runs from Dublin to Shannon Harbour, while another branch proceeds to Athy, where it joins the Barrow. This canal, although principally uſed for paſſage boats, ſerves for the carriage of corn and turf.

The *Royal Canal*, one branch of which commences at Glaſſmanogue, in the county of Dublin, and the other at the Liffey, near the Lots, extends to Coolnahay, beyond Mullingar; the two branches uniting near Proſpect, on the Glaſſnevin road. It is uſed for the ſame purpoſes as the Grand Canal. A canal has been cut from *Coal Iſland* to *Armagh*, and from that inland ſea, near Portadown to Newry. An attempt has been made to cut a canal from *Lough Neagh* to *Belfaſt*, and it is pretty far advanced. In like manner, there is an unfiniſhed canal between *Ballyſhannon* and *Beleek*. All theſe are the work of individuals, formed into companies, who, with the exception of thoſe engaged in that laſt-mentioned, have received aſſiſtance from the public purſe, amounting altogether to 379,388*l*.

ROADS. The roads of Ireland are juſtly celebrated for the excellence of their conſtruction. There are no bye-roads, and all the highways are of two widths, a mail-coach way being broader than the others. As the ſubſtratum of the greater part of the country is lime-ſtone, theſe roads are formed of that material, broken into ſmall fragments. In ſome places, the old-faſhioned paved roads ſtill exiſt. The making or repairing of roads is thus effected: Any perſon who wiſhes to have a new road conſtructed, preſents a memorial to the Grand

Jury at the Aſſizes, with an affidavit of its neceſſity; and if they allow the preſentment, the road is either made or repaired, as the caſe requires; the account of expenditure is in like manner preſented, ſworn to, and muſt receive the ſanction of the Judge. The "undertaker" then, by virtue of an order from the Grand Jury, receives his money from the treaſurer of the county. The firſt preſentment is liable to be traverſed by any land-holder in the barony, on his giving the pariſh twenty-one days' notice.

Mail coach roads are determined upon by the Poſt-maſter General, and the expence is defrayed by a tax on the county. The money for other roads is raiſed by a baronial tax, each barony paying the expence of the roads within its own boundaries, although it receives the authority of the Grand Jury to aſſeſs the whole county.

There are few turnpikes in Ireland; but on ſome of the great roads leading from Dublin, which are much uſed for the conveyance of goods, and frequented by carriages of various kinds, a toll is collected. The beſt roads are thoſe in the neighbourhood of Collon and Drogheda, and on that ſide of the county of Meath adjacent to Louth. They are formed of a black ſiliceous kind of ſtone, procured from quarries in the vicinity, and broken into ſmall pieces. It has almoſt the appearance of coal, and forms a peculiarly hard and compact bottom.

THE POST AND TRAVELLING. At the eſtabliſhment of a regular poſt between England and Ireland, in the reign of Charles II., the poſtage was fixed at two-pence the ſingle letter, if under eighty miles; four-pence between 80 and 140, and ſo on progreſſively. After this, many temporary arrangements took place, the poſt being ſometimes farmed, but generally in the hands of government, until 1784, when the Iriſh poſt-office became independent of that of Great Britain; and regulations were enacted for the carriage of letters and newſpapers, between the two kingdoms, and for the ſettlement of accounts between the poſt-offices; and for the accommodation of the trade with Ireland, poſt-office packets were eſtabliſhed between Milford Haven and Waterford, in 1787.

At preſent there are three ports, by which the mail-bags are conveyed from England to Ireland. One from Port Patrick to Donaghadee; another from Holyhead to Dublin; and a third from Milford to Bolton, near Waterford. Packets which carry over paſſengers, ſail from Ireland to each of theſe ports in Great Britain, every night when the wind ſerves, except on Sundays; and from Port Patrick, Holyhead, and Milford, every day, except that on which the Sunday night's mail-coach

arrives, but brings no mail-bag from London. Between Dublin and Holyhead there are expreſs boats, which are ſent out when the weather is ſo bad that the packets cannot put to ſea. A new harbour is conſtructing at Howth, on the outſide of Dublin bay, intended for a packet ſtation; and it is eſtimated that the average paſſage will be performed in eight hours; at preſent it requires twelve: that from Port Patrick to Donaghadee takes four hours, and croſſing from Milford to Bolton employs fifteen.

Mail-coaches are diſpatched from Dublin to Belfaſt, Londonderry, Sligo, Galway, Limerick, Cork, Kilkenny, Waterford, and Wexford, paſs through many towns, eſtabliſhing extenſive communications. There is alſo one croſs mail from Cork to Limerick, and there are ſtage-coaches to Drogheda, Newry, Belfaſt, Sligo, Cork, and Limerick.

MANUFACTURES. The principal objects of national induſtry are now to be enumerated.

LINEN. The foundation of the linen manufacture in Ireland was laid by the unfortunate Earl of Strafford, while chief governor. The aptitude of the ſoil, in many parts, for the production of flax, and the low price of labour, particularly ſpinning, to which ſo many women were bred, convinced him the manufacturer in Ireland could underſell, by twenty per cent. at leaſt, thoſe of Holland and France. Impreſſed with this idea, he ſent to Holland for flax ſeed, and to the Netherlands and France for competent workmen; and, embarking in the buſineſs with zeal, expended in promoting it 30,000*l.* of his private fortune. During the ſubſequent troubles an entire ſtop was put to this uſeful enterprize; but it was revived by the Duke of Ormond, who procured ſeveral acts of parliament for its encouragement, and alſo for inviting Proteſtant ſtrangers to ſettle in the kingdom. He diſpatched ſkilful perſons to the Netherlands, to make themſelves acquainted with the method of cultivating flax in that country, the manner of preparing and weaving it, as well as the proceſs employed in bleaching the cloth, and likewiſe to engage workmen experienced in the different branches of the art to ſettle in Ireland. At the ſame time, he wrote to Sir William Temple, whom he had recommended to the King, as a man fit for the purpoſe, and who was then ambaſſador at Bruſſels, to ſend him over from Brabant 500 families, who had been employed in this manufacture; he procured others from Rochelle, and the Iſle of Rhé; and Sir George Carteret ſupplied him with a conſiderable number from Jerſey, and the adjacent parts of France. He built tenements for ſome of theſe people at Chapel-Izod, near

Dublin, where, in a little time, 300 hands were at work, under the direction of Colonel Lawrence. Cordage, ſail cloth, ticking, and linen, were ſpeedily made of Iriſh yarn, equal in quality to any in Europe, and which could be ſold at a leſs price than in any other country.

His Grace erected another manufactory at his own town of Carrick, aſſigning to the workmen one-half of the houſes in the place, with 500 acres of land contiguous to the walls, for three lives, or thirty-one years, at a pepper-corn for the firſt, and afterwards at two-thirds of the old rent. All plans of improvement, among a people juſt beginning to emerge from barbarity, meet with formidable enemies from prejudice and inveterate habits. Indolence and ignorance were the greateſt obſtacles to the progreſs of the infant manufacture; but the Duke's perſeverance ſurmounted every difficulty: by his example and encouragement, a ſpirit of enterprize, to which the country had before been a ſtranger, was at length excited, and he had the ſatisfaction, before he quitted the government in 1669, of ſeeing the linen buſineſs in a promiſing condition.

The importance of this branch of induſtry ſoon attracted the attention of parliament, and conſiderable ſums of money were from time to time voted for its ſupport. That the buſineſs might be better ſuperintended, a board of truſtees, who firſt met in 1711, was eſtabliſhed, and in order that no encouragement might be wanting, bounties on the exportation of Iriſh linen were offered, and in 1743 they were diſtributed.

Under the direction of the above-mentioned board, the cambric manufactory was alſo introduced in 1737, by a Mr. De Joncourt, who brought over workmen from France. It was firſt eſtabliſhed at Dundalk, on the eſtate of Lord Viſcount Limerick, afterwards Earl of Clanbraſſil, and being ſupported by a voluntary contribution of 30,000*l.* was, in 1770, in a very thriving condition. The author of a pamphlet on the abſentees of Ireland, publiſhed in Dublin in 1767, ſays, that at that period there were upwards of one thouſand five hundred looms employed in weaving cambric in the northern part of the country.

The preparation of the flax plant, and the various operations it undergoes before it is made into cloth, give employment to ſo many people in Ireland, and bring into the national coffers ſo large an annual income, that the linen which is formed from it has, with great propriety, been called the ſtaple manufacture of the country. To give an idea of its extent and importance, Mr. Wakefield refers to a table ſhewing the number of acres on which flax grew in 1810. It is copied from a return

return made to the truſtees of the linen board; but it appears by a note of the ſecretary, that it includes no piece of land leſs than an acre; and as a great number of ſmall patches are employed in raiſing flax in Ireland, eſtimating them at 20,000 acres, and adding that number to the reſult given by the table, (76,749 acres,) the ſum total will be about 100,000 acres. Allowing the average produce to be 30 ſtone per acre, at 10*s.* 6*d.* per ſtone, the average price in the laſt ſeven years, the annual produce of the raw material will be worth 1,500,000*l.*

The manufacture of this produce furniſhes employ to a very large number of perſons; machinery has been called in to aid the efforts of induſtry; but ſtill it is obſerved, that the fineſt yarn muſt be wrought by the hand.

Spinning by the hand, in a country like Ireland, where the ſedentary occupations of the female muſt be ſo often interrupted, not only by domeſtic, but agricultural labours, is attended with one very ſtriking advantage, namely, that it can be ſuſpended and reſumed without inconvenience, and thus ſmall intervals of time are filled up that would otherwiſe be loſt. To this it may be added, that the women in Ireland ſeem to have a peculiar talent for this kind of work. At leaſt, ſuch is the opinion of Dr. Franklin, who obſerves, that "of all women the Iriſh are the apteſt, and beſt calculated to ſpin linen thread well, who labouring little in any kind with their hands, have their fingers more ſupple and ſoft than others of as poor condition among us."

Yarn ſpun by the hand is carried to different degrees of fineneſs, in different parts of the country, according to the nature of the manufactories which have been eſtabliſhed there, and the quality of the flax they produce: but, in this reſpect, female labour has certainly the advantage over machinery, as the yarn produced by the former may attain to a degree of fineneſs which cannot be given to it by the latter. Some inſtances of the ingenuity of Iriſh women in ſpinning are extraordinary; and the following account, extracted from the Belfaſt magazine, of the performances of Anne M'Quillin, of Comber, in the barony of Caſtlereagh, county of Down, deſerves to be recorded. "Perhaps it may not be amiſs to mention, that Anne cannot ſpin her ſuperfine yarn except in mild weather. Froſt, high winds, and exceſſive drought, are equally unfavourable: ſhe then ſpins what ſhe calls coarſe yarn, that is, from 24 to 30 or 36 hanks in the pound. A few years ago, ſhe could ſpin a hank of 64 in the pound in four days. Of the finer ſtaple ſhe can now ſpin a hank in the week, when the

weather is favourable; but the ſuperfine, that is about 100 hanks in the pound, requires nearly twice the time." It is added, by way of explanation, that each cut contains 120 threads, and each thread meaſures 2½ yards. Hence it is evident, that the thread of her yarn, of different hanks from the pound of flax, is in length,

	Miles.	Furl.	Poles.	Yds.	
64 hanks - -	102	6	34	2	Iriſh meaſure.
	130	7	7	1	Engliſh do.
85 hanks - -	136	4	34	2	Iriſh.
	173	6	36	2	Engliſh.
and					
105 ditto per lb. no	168	6	0	0	Iriſh.
leſs than	214	6	7	0	Engliſh.

There are many parts of Ireland where the manufacture extends no farther than to ſpinning, markets being held in theſe places for yarn only. The quality of the linen depends upon the fineneſs of the yarn, and on that account the fineſt is manufactured in thoſe parts where the fineſt yarn is ſpun. In many inſtances the flax is raiſed, ſpun into yarn, and woven into cloth, by the ſame perſon and his family. Taking Ireland, however, in general, the cultivators of flax are much more numerous than the ſpinners, as is ſhewn by the exportation of unſpun yarn; and the ſpinners outnumber the weavers, as appears by the ſame liſt, in the exportation of linen yarn. Linen is woven of different widths, from ten-inch bandle linen made in Kerry, to 5-4th ſheetings manufactured in the neighbourhood of Coote-hill, and of different qualities, from coarſe thin 3-4th wides in Antrim, which ſell for ſixpence, to cambrics worth one guinea per yard. The width of linen varies in different places, in a manner for which it would be difficult to aſſign an adequate reaſon. The manufacture of ſail-cloth, is confined chiefly to the neighbourhood of Cork; but conſiderable ſums are paid by the Linen Board to encourage the manufacture of ſail-cloth, duck, canvas, and drilling, ſpun by machinery; and it is thought this part of the trade might advantageouſly be extended.

The bleachers are diſtinct perſons from the manufacturers. The latter carry their webs to market, where they are purchaſed by the former, in order to be finiſhed. In that ſtate they are ſold generally through the medium of factors in Dublin or London, who ſupply capital, that credit may be given to the purchaſer. In Dublin they allow two months' credit,

credit, and in London eight. The linens exported are of a thinner texture than thoſe uſed in England, and the country trade requires a ſtouter ſort than thoſe ſold in London. In England great ſuſpicions are entertained in regard to the arts practiſed by the bleachers in Ireland, and on that account, large quantities of linen are imported, either in a brown, or a half-bleached ſtate; to aid the effect of theſe precautions in preventing fraud, government has appointed inſpectors of the yarn and ſealers of the web; and ſecurities are entered into by the bleacher, who is alſo obliged to regiſter his name.

Beſide the bounties already mentioned, on ſpun yarn, there are others on ſeed ſown, and three halfpence per yard on linen exported, under the value of 1*s.* 6*d.* per yard.

Cotton. The machinery invented by Sir Richard Arkwright has been introduced into Ireland ever ſince 1785, and many flouriſhing eſtabliſhments are formed in various parts of the kingdom.

Woollen. The woollen trade of Ireland was long checked and depreſſed through the jealouſy of the woollen manufacturers of England; but ſince the Act of Union, the two countries are placed in this reſpect upon an equal footing. Sufficient time has not yet been afforded for very expenſive eſtabliſhments, but in many parts of Ireland this manufacture is carried on with ſucceſs, in coarſe cloths, friezes, and flannel. Merino ſheep are introduced, and fine broad cloth begins to be made.

Tanneries. In Ireland, notwithſtanding the number of cattle ſlaughtered every year, eſpecially in time of war, it does not appear that this occupation is carried on to ſuch an extent as might be expected. The want of oak bark is a great impediment. Birch and alder bark are uſed as ſubſtitutes, but the chief obſtacle to the good preparation of leather in that country, is ſaid to be the levying the duty on the pit, inſtead of impoſing it on the ſkin, as in England; this makes it the intereſt of the tanner to run as many hides through the ſame liquor as poſſible, whereby the ſkins are imperfectly prepared, the proceſs being but half performed.

Gloves are manufactured in Ireland, but not to a great extent. Thoſe called Limerick gloves are made of the ſkins of calves taken from fat cows when they are ſlaughtered, and ſold at from two to three ſhillings per head.

Stockings. The ſtocking manufacture is carried on chiefly in Dublin, and is very much confined to the preparation of coarſe woollen articles, though it is certain that this branch might be very much extended.

IRON. The manufacture of iron in Great Britain is particularly favoured by the inexhauſtible ſupply of coals, and the great perfection of machinery. It may appear aſtoniſhing, therefore, that it has made ſo little progreſs in the ſiſter kingdom, ſince, in no country of Europe, is better iron to be met with than Ireland may produce for all common purpoſes.

An attempt has been made at Arigna, in the county of Roſcommon, to erect iron-works on a conſiderable ſcale; but the manufacture failed for want of fuel; and to the ſame cauſe may be aſcribed the want of potteries and ſome other manufactures, the materials for which are abundantly produced. Hardware articles are manufactured in Dublin; and ſome coarſe implements, ſuch as reaping-hooks, ſcythes, or ſheers, are made in the town of Carlow.

MISCELLANIES. Diſtillation, brewing, grinding corn, and curing proviſions, though they do not properly fall under the denomination of manufactures, may be introduced here; becauſe they are occupations, which like manufactures, contribute to give employment to the people, and to render labour productive. *Diſtillation* is carried on to a great extent in licenſed ſtills, and to an incredible amount in thoſe which are illicit. *Breweries* are eſtabiſhed at Cork, Fermoy, Limerick, Waterford, Roſcrea, Dublin, Belfaſt, Navan, Armagh, Donoughmore, Dungannon, and a few other places. Some *cyder* is made throughout the ſouth of Ireland, but not in ſuch quantities as will render it a common beverage among the people, as it is in the weſt of England. The Cacagee cyder, made in Clare, is highly extolled. — *Grinding*. The buſineſs of converting wheat into flour is increaſing in Ireland; a conſiderable change with reſpect to food, having taken place in the habits of the people in many parts of the country, wheaten bread begins now to be much more uſed than it was formerly. Of late years a great ſale has ariſen for bran, which is carried to the manufacturing parts of England, to be uſed in the printing of cottons. There are regular flour factors in Dublin; the flour is ſent thither by country millers, in bags containing each two cwt., and the perſon to whom it is conſigned is reſponſible for the ſolvency of the buyer.

Salting Proviſions. Lord Sheffield ſays that proviſions are a natural ſtaple article of commerce for Ireland, becauſe her climate is better adapted to it than any other; her cattle can remain longer in the field, and her beef can be cured a greater part of the year than elſewhere, from the temperature of her ſeaſons, neither froſt nor heat interrupting that buſineſs for a long time. The proviſion trade is principally confined to the city of Cork, whence moſt of the beef, pork, and butter, produced

duced in the ſouthern diſtricts of Ireland is exported. The average number of oxen ſlaughtered is calculated at ten thouſand, and that of cows at 8000. The beef cured is divided into three ſorts: planters', India, and common beef. The planters' beef has among it no part of the head, neck, or ſhoulders, and the ſame parts, with the back-bone and ſhanks, are ſeparated from the India beef. The common beef is packed up with the addition of thoſe coarſe parts which have been taken from the planters' and India beef. The merchant purchaſes the carcaſe of the grazier by weight; cows, and ſmall lean cattle bring the leaſt price, and fat oxen of ſix years old the greateſt. The meat is packed either into tierces or barrels; the former containing 300lbs. and the latter 200lbs. of fleſh independently of ſalt. The expedition with which the animals are ſlaughtered, the meat cut up and ſalted, and afterwards packed, is aſtoniſhing.

Pork is packed in the ſame manner. St. Ube's ſalt, on account of the coarſeneſs of the grain, is preferred to any other. One half of the hides procured at Cork are exported; the heavy ones are retained at home for ſhoe leather. In 1807, about 3,600 head of cattle were killed, and 50,000 hogs, but it appears that the ſlaughtering of the former is on the decline, while that of the latter increaſes. In the proviſion trade, Dublin ſeems to be gaining both upon Cork and Limerick. *Bacon* and *hams* are ſalted on an extenſive ſcale at Limerick, Clonmel, and Waterford, whence they are ſhipped to London, where they are finally cured, and dried by means of fires made with ſhavings of different kinds of wood, each of which gives them a different flavour. Thus a Weſtphalia or a Yorkſhire ham is frequently made from a hog ſalted in Ireland. *Glue* is made at Cork and Limerick. The *hoofs* of cattle are an article of exportation, being ſent to Birmingham, where they are converted into ſnuff-boxes. In Ireland, the horns are ſoftened by the application of heat, and made into lanterns, knife-handles, combs, &c. A great deal of *bone* is burnt into ivory black, particularly in Dublin.

Coarſe hats are manufactured in various parts of Ireland; chiefly of wool, ſome of goats' hair, but although goat-ſkins abound Chamois leather is not made. Large quantities of *kelp* are manufactured. It is uſed by the bleachers, and is made along the coaſt of Clare, Galway, Mayo, Sligo, and Donegal. In the north of Ireland, at Liſburn, Belfaſt, and Moyallan, there are *vitriol* manufactories, the proprietors of which make *muriatic acid* and *Glauber's ſalts*.

Glaſs manufactories are eſtabliſhed at Dublin, Waterford, and Belfaſt; but the uſe of Engliſh glaſs is prevalent in Ireland, and

and the reaſon aſſigned for it is the want of fuel. *Sugar* is refined, and houſes are eſtabliſhed for that purpoſe both at Belfaſt and at Dublin. *Stone quarries* are ſo common, that bricks are little uſed. The Iriſh bricks are inferior to the Engliſh. There are few *ſalt* manufactories. Thoſe of Waterford only purify the Cheſhire rock ſalt, and bring it into a ſtate fit for uſe.

FISHERIES. The fiſheries of Ireland may be claſſed under four heads: — 1ſt. *Inland fiſhery*; 2d. The *white fiſhery*, comprehending chiefly cod, ling, &c.; 3d. The *herring* fiſhery; and 4th. The *ſhell* fiſhery.

Inland. All the lakes and many of the rivers, abound with trout and pike, the former of which are in ſeaſon the whole year; and though fly fiſhing is practiſed in ſummer for amuſement, the fiſh in general are caught in nets. The rivers produce pike and ſalmon: this valuable fiſh is ſaid to become ſcarce owing to the prevalence of illegal practices in taking it at an undue age and in improper ſeaſons. The two largeſt ſalmon fiſheries in Ireland are at Ballyſhannon, in Donegal, and Coleraine, in Londonderry: the former belongs to Admiral Pakenham, the latter to the London Society, who have leaſed it to Iriſhmen, by whom it is re-let at a conſiderable profit to a company who keep faſt ſailing ſmacks, to convey the fiſh to Liverpool, and other places. Eel weirs are common in almoſt all the rivers of Ireland. Of this fiſh there are ſome very fine ſpecies, as the ſilver eel and the ſand eel.

2d. *The White fiſhery.* Whether the inland fiſheries of Ireland, as at preſent carried on, are uſeful or detrimental to the country, is a point which requires ſome conſideration; for it can hardly be ſuppoſed, that the benefit ariſing from the food which they ſupply, can be equivalent to the miſchief they occaſion from the damming up of the water, by which thouſands of acres are flooded at all ſeaſons, and to the quantity of land thus deſtroyed to render the fiſhing beds prolific. Yet as a great portion of the inhabitants of Ireland is catholic, large quantities of fiſh are neceſſary for Lent and faſt days. The land-carriage however is both inconvenient and expenſive; Dublin and many maritime places are ſupplied by means of wherries and other craft, but the inland places are ſeldom able to get freſh ſea-fiſh. Cod may be caught in abundance particularly at the Nymph bank about ten or twelve leagues ſouth-eaſt from Dungarvon, but the climate of Ireland is not favourable to the curing of it. The ſame bank alſo produces ſoles, plaice, and all kinds of ground fiſh. In other parts, turbot, ſkate, ſhad, ſprats, and many other fiſh abound. The formation of a company is ſtrongly recommended for the purpoſe

poſe of catching fiſh on the great bank which ſtretches nearly from the coaſt of Galway, in an oblique direction to Newfoundland, at the depth of from twenty to thirty fathoms; and of various breadths, from fifty to one hundred miles and more, extending from latitude 53° N. long. 10° 10′ to lat. 45° and long. 53° weſt. In ſupport of this propoſition, it is ſaid that the weſtern coaſt of Ireland is ſo peculiarly adapted for an extenſive fiſhery, that 2000 veſſels might be eaſily loaded in a ſeaſon with fiſh of various kinds, and of the beſt quality. It is alſo believed that a very productive turbot fiſhery might be carried on at the mouth of the Shannon.

3d. *The herring fiſhery.* Formerly the herring fiſhery on the coaſt of Ireland was thought worthy of attention, and a conſiderable quantity of herrings was exported, ſo long ago as between the years 1580 and 1655. Of late, however, this branch of fiſhing has much declined, in conſequence of the fiſh having deſerted the coaſt. At Arklow, in the county of Wicklow, forty-five boats, ſix hands in each, are employed in the herring fiſhery. About fifty fiſhing boats ply about Killala. In Sligo, and on the whole north-weſt coaſt, the herring fiſhery was of great importance till the year 1783 or 1784; but after that time it failed entirely. A few herrings are ſtill caught during the ſummer ſeaſon, but the quantity is ſo ſmall as to be ſcarcely worth notice. A few are taken in other places; but, on the whole, the herring fiſhery in Ireland is in a very declining ſtate.

4th. *The ſhell fiſhery.* The art of catching ſhell-fiſh ſeems to be leſs underſtood in Ireland than it is in Norway and Scotland. Lobſters and crabs are found in many places; their quality is generally good, particularly in Galway and Wexford. The Iriſh oyſters are very bad; the grounds where they are found are not private property, hence, little care is beſtowed on their improvement. While theſe places remain common, and no regulations are eſtabliſhed to prevent the oyſters from being taken up in an improper manner, or at an unſeaſonable time, it is impoſſible that they can attain to the neceſſary perfection. The pearl muſcle is met with in ſeveral of the Iriſh rivers, and particularly in the Blackwater, in the county of Waterford.

Foreign Trade. That part of the Iriſh trade which properly comes under the denomination of foreign, is very ſmall. Many eſtabliſhments, however, are formed, and there is every reaſon to hope that capital and induſtry will be found to give it the moſt beneficial effect. In 1811 the total imports are ſtated at 7,055,214*l.* the exports at 5,923,112*l.*

THE

THE METROPOLIS.

SITUATION. Dublin, the metropolis of Ireland, is ſituated in the province of Leinſter, in the county of Dublin; at the bottom of a fine bay, about eight miles in diameter; called, after the city, Dublin bay. The river Liffey divides the town into nearly two equal parts, and empties itſelf into the bay about half a mile below the preſent city. Dublin is the ſecond city in His Britannic Majeſty's dominions, and may rank with the fineſt cities in Europe for extent, magnificence, and commerce. Its form is nearly ſquare. From the Royal Hoſpital at Kilmainham, the weſtern extremity, to the eaſtern, at the Marine School, it is two miles and a half long; and is in its greateſt breadth about one and a half: with ſome irregularities, it is about ſix miles in circumference. The road, called the circular road, ſurrounding the city, is eight miles in circuit, and not to be ſurpaſſed for excellence or beauty and variety of proſpect. Dublin is computed to contain about 16,000 houſes, and to ſhelter about 144,000 perſons; and is ſituated in the latitude of 53° 21′ north, and 6° 2′ weſt longitude from London.

HISTORY. Of the time when Dublin was firſt built, no authentic records are to be obtained. The early Iriſh hiſtorians are very little to be credited; the firſt authentic account is in Ptolemy, who flouriſhed in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about the year of Chriſt 140. The city at preſent moſt generally called Dublin has been known and made mention of under various names. The ancient Iriſh called it *Drom choll coil*, that is, the *brow of a hazel wood*, from a wood of thoſe trees immediately about it; others have ſince called it Bally-ath-cliath, that is, *a town on the ford of hurdles*; by reaſon that before the river Liffey was embanked, acceſs to it was made by means of hurdles laid on the low and marſhy parts adjoining the river; and the harbour was diſtinguiſhed by the name of *Lean Cliath*, or the harbour of hurdles or wicker work, either from the circumſtance laſt mentioned or from the weirs made of hurdles, and placed in rivers and bays by the ancient Iriſh for the purpoſe of taking fiſh. Dublin was called Eblana by Ptolemy; which word is a ſuppoſed eliſion of Deblana, the termination of two Britiſh words *dur* and *lhun*, ſignifying *black water*, or a *black channel*, from the black boggy bed of the river in this place; and hence comes Dublinum or Dublin. The then inhabitants of Fingall called it Divelin, and in Welch it is Dinas Dulin, or the city of Dublin to this day.

Who

Who were the original inhabitants of Dublin is a matter as uncertain and obſcure as is the time in which it was built. The *Blanii*, *Eblani*, or *Deblani*, inhabited the tract of country now comprehending the city and county of Dublin, and part of the county of Meath. From what country this colony came, is not aſcertained; probably from that part of Britain called Wales. Its contiguity, the affinity of language, and cloſe uniformity of ancient religious rites and ceremonies, confirm the opinion.

Dublin has not always been the capital of Ireland, nor yet of the province of Leinſter: Tarah, in Meath, had been for ages, perhaps before the very exiſtence of Dublin, the reſidence of the kings of Ireland, notwithſtanding no veſtige can be traced of any pile denoting former conſequence. Hiſtory attributes, if not the building, the ſtrengthening and fortifying of Dublin to the Oſtmen or Danes, who had ſettlements in that part of the kingdom as early as in the year 795, on the ſcore of trade; but aided by their countrymen who in 838 entered the river Liffey with a fleet of ſixty ſail, they commenced hoſtilities and ravaged the country. Having fortified themſelves, and ſecured their unjuſt poſſeſſions againſt the natives, they ſubmitted to the government of one of their leaders, and titled him king of Dublin. They ſuſtained conſiderable damage and loſs, in a conteſt with Brien Boro, the valiant king of Munſter, in 999, when he took and plundered the city. Having given hoſtages for their future allegiance, in 1000 they repaired and fortified the city with new works. On their converſion to Chriſtianity, they founded the abbey of the bleſſed Virgin Mary, on the north ſide of the Liffey, about the year 948, for Benedictine monks, then the moſt celebrated order in the weſtern world. About the year 962, it is ſaid, that Edgar King of England conquered a great part of Ireland, and particularly the noble city of Dublin; but which, if he certainly did ſubdue, he did not long retain; for the Oſtmen were undoubted maſters of Dublin until the arrival of the Engliſh under the Earl of Pembroke.

About the year 1038, Sitric Mac Aulaffe, aſſiſted by Donat, biſhop of Dublin, founded the cathedral of Chriſt-church in the heart of the city. In 1162, the Oſtmen of Dublin were overthrown by Dermod Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, who exerciſed greater power over them than any king had done for a length of time, and made them his tributaries. On account of the cruelty exerciſed by Dermod over his ſubjects, added to the aggravation of a rape committed by him on the wife of Tiernan O'Roirk, or Ruarc, king of Breffiny, Roderic O'Connor, king of Ireland, invaded Leinſter, the territories of Dermod,

Dermod, drove him out of the country, and compelled the Oſtmen of Dublin, who ſupported his cauſe, to give hoſtages for future conduct. Dermod fled to England to beg the ſuccour of Henry II. in recovering his dominions; which he ſwore to hold as his vaſſal. Henry, who had long meditated an invaſion of Ireland, to prevent aids from being ſent to France, to the injury of his poſſeſſions on the continent, cheerfully gave permiſſion to his ſubjects to eſpouſe the cauſe of Dermod, who by promiſes of large recompence in lands, money, and cattle, engaged ſome leading men in his ſervice. This circumſtance laid the foundation of Engliſh aſcendancy in Ireland. After various conflicts and turns of fortune, in which the Engliſh under Richard de Clare, Earl of Strigul and Pembroke, (called from his ſkill in archery, Strongbow), were nearly driven from the country, Henry himſelf arrived with a powerful army, received the homage of Strongbow, for the kingdom of Leinſter, which he enjoyed from his marriage with Eva, the daughter of Dermod, and accepted the ſurrender of the cities of Waterford and Dublin, with ſome forts. In a perambulation of his newly-acquired territory, Henry was honoured with the voluntary ſubmiſſion of many of the principal Iriſh chieftains. As an act of favour to a few who ſubmitted, he granted the protection of the laws of England; and eſtabliſhed a court of juſtice, and offices for the adminiſtration of the law, and held a parliament in Dublin. He divided the diſtricts ſubject to him into ſhires or counties; appointed judges, ſheriffs, officers of ſtate, and every appendage of Engliſh government. Dublin was honoured with his preſence during the celebration of Chriſtmas, which he kept in great ſtate and ſplendour, gained the admiration of the people, ſettled the affairs of his government, and ſecured his great object of preventing the uſual aids afforded to France by the Iriſh.

Having experienced the benefit the crown acquired, without charge, by private adventurers, he diſtributed large tracts of land to the leading perſonages who attended him, in order to make the part he had obtained defray the expence of ſubduing the whole. He granted the city of Dublin to the inhabitants of Briſtol, with the ſame liberties and free cuſtoms which they enjoyed at Briſtol, and throughout his land. Hugh de Lacy was appointed governor of Dublin, with a train of twenty knights. Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitzgerald were made his coadjutors, with an equal retinue. It was alſo provided, that in caſe of the death of any chief governor, the chancellor, treaſurer, chief juſtice, and chief baron, keeper of the rolls, and ſerjeant at law, ſhould be empowered, with conſent

ſent of the nobles of the land, to elect a ſucceſſor, until the royal pleaſure ſhould be further known.

Henry being called from Ireland by the affairs of England, Earl Strongbow ſoon experienced the treachery of his pretended allies, and was reduced to very great and alarming ſtreights; being ſcarcely able to hold Dublin alone, of all his great acquiſitions. After experiencing much chagrin, and enduring a tedious illneſs, he died in 1177, of a mortification in the foot, and was buried with great ſolemnity, in Chriſt Church, Dublin, in ſight of the croſs, where ſtill remains a monument to his memory. William Fitz Andlem, his ſucceſſor, founded and endowed the monaſtery of St. Thomas the Martyr, in the weſtern ſuburbs of the city, now called Thomas Court.

For ſeveral centuries, the hiſtory of Dublin is, like that of moſt other capitals, the narrative of confirmed immunities, improved edifices, inſtitutions varying according to the change of manners, and occaſional misfortunes. King John cauſed the caſtle to be built; Henry the Third gave the citizens a licence to carry a bridge over the Liffey; an attempt was made to eſtabliſh a college by ſome pious prelates, in the hopes of reforming a licentious people; Henry IV. rewarded the loyalty of the citizens, by granting a licence that the mayors of Dublin ſhould bear before them a gilded ſword for the honour of the king, in the ſame manner as the mayor of London. Lambert Simnel was crowned king in Chriſt Church, Dublin; and the cauſe of Perkin Warbeck was ſo popular, that he would probably have received a ſimilar honour, had the courſe of events permitted him to reach the capital. In 1534, the bold rebel Fitzgerald gained great aſcendancy, and was enabled, for a time, to overawe the capital and threaten the caſtle. On Eaſter Sunday, 1550, the Liturgy was read, for the firſt time, in the Engliſh tongue in Chriſt Church, Dublin, in purſuance of an order from the king for that purpoſe; and the year following the ſame liturgy was printed in Dublin, being probably the firſt book ever printed in Ireland.

It was reſerved for James I. to refine and civilize the country, which, after a perpetual conteſt of 440 years, had been completely ſubjected by Elizabeth. He took the moſt effectual ſtep to heal the wounds of diſcord, by receiving the whole body of the Iriſh as his ſubjects, eſtabliſhing circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and making new grants of all lands and charters. A great point with Charles I. was to unite the churches of England and Ireland; and which, in concert with the Deputy Strafford, and Archbiſhop Laud, was effected.

The numerous attainders which had been iſſued againſt diſ-

affected

affected perſons during the reigns of Elizabeth and James, and the heavy reſtrictions upon the Romiſh religion, were cauſes of union to a large body, who, in 1641, formed a powerful conſpiracy for the entire extirpation of the Engliſh on an appointed day. At the head of this confederacy were, Roger More, or Moore, a man of very active talents, and conſiderable influence among his countrymen, Lord Macquire, Sir Phelim O'Nial, or Neal, and Plunket, three of the moſt powerful of the old Iriſh. The negligence of the lords juſtices, Sir William Parſons and Sir John Borlaſe, would have rendered the city an eaſy and valuable prize, if the governors had not been rouſed by the conſpiracy being diſcloſed to Parſons the day before its intended execution: immediate precaution was taken to ſecure the city and caſtle. The diſcovery, however, was too late to prevent the maſſacre, which the next day extended with diabolical fury over the kingdom. By the preſervation of Dublin, the extent of ruin which otherwiſe would have taken place, was conſiderably leſſened; for, beſides the ſecurity of its own devoted inhabitants, it afforded refuge to numbers who eſcaped the ſlaughter that then raged abroad: the moſt moderate report of the victims who were deſtroyed in this ſhocking inſurrection eſtimates them at 40,000.

The civil wars, begun ſoon after this horrible maſſacre, and the oppoſition made to the uſurpation of Cromwell, overwhelmed the country with blood. The loyalty of Ormond ſhone conſpicuous during this period, and at the Reſtoration he was created a duke and made Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, in which ſtation he ſtrenuouſly exerted himſelf for the advantage of his king and country. By the intrigues of his enemies he was diſmiſſed from the government in 1669; but after ſome time, and experiencing much ſtudied neglect from the king, in 1677, he was again appointed to that important ſtation. It was during this time of his adminiſtration that he obtained the concurrence of Charles for founding a royal hoſpital, as an aſylum for infirm and decayed ſoldiers; the foundation-ſtone of this, his long-meditated deſign, was laid in 1680, and it was completed in 1684, in the very year of his recal. It is called the Royal Hoſpital of Charles II. at Kilmainham, and is an inſtitution that does honour both to the duke and the king. The ſame year, 1684, two ſtone bridges were erected acroſs the Liffey, at Dublin; one was named Ormond Bridge, after the Duke; and the other Arran Bridge, in honour of the Earl of Arran, Ormond's ſon, and deputy two years before.

During the ſhort reign of James II. religious zeal ſpread diſcord over the kingdom, and involved it in new troubles and misfortunes. James appointed the followers of the church of

Rome to all places, civil and eccleſiaſtical. The popiſh Earl of Tyrconnel procured the diſmiſſion and obtained the place of the Earl of Clarendon, as Viceroy of Ireland; and Clarendon departed the country, followed by not leſs than fifteen hundred Proteſtant families, who looked upon their country as no longer affording them protection. The charter of Dublin was annulled, and a new one formed, which transferred all the rights and privileges of the corporation to Catholics; and the former poſſeſſors were left to bring their actions before popiſh judges, againſt the intruders; they applied to the King by their recorder, but to no purpoſe. The privileges of the Univerſity were invaded, and profeſſorſhips and other dignities endeavoured to be filled by Catholics. This learned body finding their inſtitution in danger of periſhing, by Tyrconnel having ſtopped the penſion annually paid out of the Exchequer, and which then formed the moſt conſiderable part of their revenue, determined to convert moſt of their plate into ſpecie, and convey it to England to be diſpoſed of. Tyrconnel had it ſeized in the port of Dublin, and lodged in ſtores for the King's uſe; but by advice of his more moderate partizans, the plate was reſtored to the College.

A rumour of a general maſſacre, meditated by the Catholics, being ſpread abroad, Dublin, in a moment, became a ſcene of uproar and confuſion; a tumultuous crowd ran to the ſhipping in the harbour, to ſeek ſhelter and ſafety by flight; they ſuffered an ecſtaſy of terror, and their friends were left ſtupefied with expectation of the fatal blow: the calamities of 1641 were every where apprehended, in revenge for what the Catholics had ſuffered from Oliver Cromwell.

James, driven from England, came to Ireland from France, and landed at Kinſale, on March 12. 1689; and the 24th of the ſame month made public entry into Dublin, followed by a ſplendid train of French, Britiſh, and Iriſh adherents. He aſſured the Proteſtant clergy of protection and redreſs, and promiſed to defend and enlarge the privileges of the Univerſity; notwithſtanding theſe aſſurances, on their refuſing to admit one Green, a Catholic, as ſenior profeſſor by his appointment, the members were forcibly ejected by his ſoldiers, and the private and public property of the community ſeized: the chapel was converted into a magazine, the chambers into priſons; and the members of the ſociety obtained their perſonal liberty only on the expreſs condition, that three of them ſhould not meet together on pain of death. One Moor, a popiſh eccleſiaſtic, and a man of letters and liberal ſentiments, was nominated provoſt; who, with the aſſiſtance of another of his order, preſerved the library from the ravages of a barbarous army. The manner in which

James raiſed the value of money, and eſtabliſhed mints, has already been mentioned.

King James met his Iriſh parliament in Dublin on the 7th of May; when he told them, "He had always been for liberty of conſcience, and that nothing ſhould ever perſuade him to alter his mind, for he would have no other teſt but that of loyalty." He boaſted the aſſiſtance he had received from France, and that it ſhould be his chief ſtudy to make his people happy. The parliament attainted of rebellion two archbiſhops, one duke, ſixteen earls, twenty viſcounts, one viſcounteſs, ſeven biſhops, twenty-ſix barons, thirty-three baronets, fifty-one knights, eighty-three clergymen, and two thouſand two hundred and twenty-three gentlemen, who were all declared traitors, and their eſtates confiſcated or plundered. Tyrconnel was created a duke, and had 20,000*l.* a-year granted him out of the forfeited eſtates. This parliament ſat only to the 20th July; yet in that ſhort time they entirely deſtroyed the ſettlement of Ireland, by expelling the Proteſtant clergy from their livings, and the laity from their inheritances.

After James's defeat by King William, at the battle of the Boyne, he retreated to Dublin, where his friends were in anxious expectation every moment to receive him in triumph. They had deliberated whether, in caſe of a defeat, Dublin ſhould not be ſet on fire; but he charged them, on their allegiance, to commit no ſuch barbarous outrage; and adviſed them to liberate their priſoners, and ſubmit to the Prince of Orange. William entered the city, and repaired to the cathedral of St. Patrick, to return thanks for his victory. On March 23. 1692, the war in Ireland was declared, by proclamation, to be at an end. Nine years afterward, the city, in grateful commemoration of their late deliverance from popery and ſlavery, erected in College-Green the ſtatue of King William in braſs, on horſe-back, placed on a high marble pedeſtal, with the following inſcription: —

Gulielmo Tertio;
Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, et Hiberniæ,
Regi,
Ob Religionem Conſervatam,
Reſtitutas Leges,
Libertatem Aſſertam,
Cives Dublinienſis hanc Statuam poſuere.

Since this period, Dublin affords no hiſtory of any importance, diſtinct from that of the country at large.

Civil Government. This city in more antient times was governed by a provoſt, but in the reign of Henry IV., 1409, the citizens had liberty granted them to chooſe every year a

mayor and two bailiffs, which laſt were in time changed to ſheriffs by Edward IV. King Charles II. in 1660 gave a collar of S.S.'s to the city of Dublin; but this collar having been loſt when James was in Ireland, a new collar was given in 1697 to Bartholomew Van Homrich, Eſq., then Lord Mayor, in value nearly a thouſand pounds. Charles II. had, that this city might not ſeem inferior, in 1665, honoured the mayor with the ſtyle of *Lord*, Sir Daniel Belingham being the firſt who bore the title. And 500*l.* per annum were granted by the crown to ſupport the honour of the office.

COMPANIES. The tradeſmen here, as in other places, are divided into companies, which are ſo many corporations, and thus diſtinguiſhed: 1. *Merchants.* 2. *Taylors.* 3. *Smiths.* 4. *Barber-Chirurgeons.* 5. *Bakers.* 6. *Butchers.* 7. *Carpenters.* 8. *Shoemakers.* 9. *Sadlers.* 10. *Cooks.* 11. *Tanners.* 12. *Tallow-chandlers.* 13. *Skinners and Glovers.* 14. *Weavers.* 15. *Shearmen and Dyers.* 16. *Goldſmiths.* 17. *Coopers.* 18. *Feltmakers.* 19. *Stationers, Cutlers, and Painter-ſtainers.* 20. *Bricklayers and Plaſterers.* 21. *Curriers.* 22. *Hoſiers.* 23. *Brewers and Maltſters.* 24. *Joiners and Wainſcotters.*

WALLS. The walls and fortifications of Dublin were raiſed by the Oſtmen, or Danes, in the ninth century; and repaired and ſtrengthened by them in the year 1000. The Engliſh extended the walls and increaſed the importance of the city conſiderably, eſpecially by building the caſtle, in 1205; yet, even at that time, the whole circumference of the city, including the caſtle walls, did not meaſure an entire Iriſh mile, as may be aſcertained from the following connection, which is as well authenticated as the beſt teſtimony and the devaſtations of time will allow. From the north, called the ſtorehouſe, tower of the caſtle, the city wall extended to Dame's gate, which ſtood upon the riſing of Cork hill; thence it was carried to Newman's tower, on the bank of the river; then continued till it joined Fyan's tower, and along the Merchant's quay, until it joined Bridge-gate on the ſouth ſide of the old bridge; from Bridge-gate the wall was continued to Ormond-gate, up a ſteep hill to New-gate, and ſo along the rear of Back-lane to Nicholas-gate; thence, in a north-eaſt direction at the back of a mill race in Bride's alley, till it extended to another gate, called Pole-gate; and from that it proceeded in nearly a ſtraight line till it terminated with the caſtle at Birmingham tower.

CASTLE. The Caſtle of Dublin is generally believed to have been built by Henry de Loundres, Archbiſhop of Dublin, and governor of the Engliſh poſſeſſions, in 1220. The entrance into the caſtle from the city was on the north ſide, by a draw-

bridge, between two ſtrong round towers, armed with a portcullis, called the gateway towers Other towers formed a ſeries of defences from the weſtern gate. From the Wardrobe tower another curtain extended to the ſtorehouſe tower; and thence to the eaſtern gateway tower at the entrance into the Caſtle. The whole was an oblong quadrangle, and encompaſſed with a broad deep moat, partly dry and partly under water by the flowing of the tide, and a branch of the river Dodder, called the Poddle, which ran by the ſouth curtain, and ſtill runs in the ſame direction, through now a ſewer under ground. There were two ſally-ports, or poſtern-gates, in the walls of this fortreſs; one near Birmingham tower toward the weſt, the other by the eaſtern curtain to the offices in the back yard. The Caſtle was not converted to the purpoſe of the ſeat of government till the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Before that time, there ſeems to have been no fixed place for the reception of the chief governors: they ſometimes held their courts at Thomas Court; ſometimes at the palace of the Archbiſhop of Dublin, at St. Sepulchre's; but oftener than at any other place, at the Caſtle of Kilmainham. In 1559, the Caſtle of Kilmainham being much out of repair, the Caſtle of Dublin was conſidered a more convenient and fit place than any other for the reſidence of the chief governor. By order of Queen Elizabeth, in 1561 or 1562, the Caſtle was begun to be repaired and enlarged for the reception of the Lord Lieutenants; and has undergone ſuch changes, in figure, extent, and beauty, that few traces of its priſtine form remain at this day: great part of Birmingham and the Wardrobe towers are ſtill extant; and in 1715, one of the gateway towers, and ſome of the old adjoining building, were ſtanding. As the palace of the Lord-Lieutenant, it has already been noticed.

Buildings. The buildings of the city, before the arrival of Henry II. in 1172, were of very inferior order, the better ſort being conſtructed of wattles ſpread over with clay, and covered with ſtraw or thatch; the inferior of mud or clay, with ſtraw mixed to hold it together. A large hall, erected by order of that monarch, of ſmoothed wattles, united with more than common ſkill, had ſo ſplendid an appearance, in the eyes of the rude natives, that they ſtyled it a royal palace. The eſtabliſhment of Engliſh colonies gradually produced conſiderable change for the better in the conſtruction of the buildings; and was attended by an increaſe of commerce, and an introduction of wealth and refinement. The buildings were now formed of timber, and covered with tiles, ſlates, or ſhingles. Some ſuch edifices, built in the time of Elizabeth, were ſtanding until late in the eighteenth century. The moſt ancient of the cage-

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work houſes, laſt ſubſiſting, was in Skinner-row, near the Tholſel; it was called the *Carbrie*, and belonged to the Earl of Kildare. In the time of James I. the city was greatly improved, both within and without the walls; houſes were built of brick and ſtone, and the city much extended. In 1610, as appears by a map of Dublin, then publiſhed by a Mr. Speed, the river was not embanked on the north ſide of the city, and only a ſmall portion on the ſouth. The ground now diſtinguiſhed by the names of the Upper and Lower Ormond Quays, the Batchelor's Walk, the Inns Quay, and Arran Quay, compriſing in the whole an extent of upwards of a mile, was then covered with ooze, and overflowed with the tides; excepting a ſmall portion about the King's Inns, where had been a monaſtery of Dominican friars. Mary's Abbey was then the extremity of the town to the north: Oſtmantown, Grange-gorman, Stoney-batter, Glaſſnemenoge, and Drumcondra, were then villages at ſome diſtance from town. On the ſouth of the river alſo, in 1610, from Newman's tower, where Eſſex-bridge ſtands, down to the extremity of the ſouth wall, the ground, now embanked to Ring's end, was under the dominion of the ſea, and covered with ooze and filth. The buildings, public and private, which have ſince been erected, have advanced it to the rank of one of the firſt capitals in Europe; and even in late years public ſpirit and individual enterpriſe have added to it ſome of its moſt conſpicuous ornaments. Among theſe may be reckoned the Cuſtom-houſe, the Four Courts, the New Rooms, the Rotunda, the Lying-in hoſpital, and the forming of its garden into Rutland-ſquare; the conſtructing of the Circus and Mountjoy-ſquare, the continuing of Sackville-ſtreet to the river, erecting Carliſle-bridge; and, ſouth of the Liffey, the magnificent additions at the eaſtern and weſtern extremes of the Parliament-houſe, Daly's Club-houſe, the opening of Dame-ſtreet, the elegant new ſtructures within the College, completion of Merrion-ſquare, which, with the docks and canals, altogether ſtrike with admiration at ſo vaſt a diſplay of utility, taſte, and ſpirit.

THE BAY. The bay of Dublin is nearly circular, about ſix miles in diameter, communicating directly into the harbour. The opening between the hills of Dalkey and Howth is extremely grand: to the north, after paſſing the bold promontory of Howth, the flat but rich appearance of the lands of Clontarf, with its pleaſing villages; and to the ſouth, the bold preſentment of the ſhores of Dalkey, Bullock, Dunleary, and the Black Rock, with the eminent appearance of the villages and white villas, form grand and pictureſque ſcenes, to which the Wicklow hills and the mountains, from their forms called

the Sugar-loaves, do not a little contribute, appearing not unlike extinguiſhed volcanoes. The light-houſe is ſituated at the extremity of an extenſive mole, which projects three miles into the bay. The mole is twenty-five feet broad, and five feet above high water; it is all of hewn ſtone, well cramped together; and was conſtructed to deepen the harbour, much injured by two immenſe banks of ſand to the north and ſouth of the channel, called the Bulls. Immediately above the light-houſe is another diſadvantage to the harbour of Dublin; a large bank of ſand, called the Bar, lies directly acroſs the entrance, preventing veſſels of burthen from entering but at or about high water.

Docks and Canals. The docks and canals, that preſent themſelves on entering the river, are well worthy of notice. The *Grand Canal Harbour*, on the ſouth ſide, is a ſtupendous undertaking. The *Cuſtom-houſe Dock* is alſo a noble receptacle for ſhipping, and cannot fail of proving highly important to commerce. The canals that completely ſurround three parts of Dublin are of very general utility, both as to inland and foreign commerce.

Road. The circular road ſurrounding the city affords moſt delightful views of the town and country, rendered highly picturesque by repeated proſpects of the Wicklow mountains, the bay, and thoſe bold features which form its ſhores, the hills of Dalkey and Howth, enlivened by the view of veſſels under ſail.

Provisions. Dublin is plentifully ſupplied with excellent proviſions of all kinds. Although there are collieries in the kingdom, very little native fuel, excepting turf, is conſumed; coal is ſupplied from England and Scotland. Freſh water is abundantly obtained, and collected in a large reſervoir, ſituated in the ſouth-weſtern quarter of the city, called the city baſon.

Churches and Places of Worship. Dublin has two cathedrals, Chriſt Church and St. Patrick's; and eighteen pariſh churches, dedicated to St. Paul, St. Michan, St. Mary, St. Thomas, St. Mark, St. Andrew, St. Ann, St. Peter, St. Bridget, St. Werburgh, St. John, St. Michael, St. Nicholas (within), St. Nicholas (without), St. Audeon, St. Catharine, St. James, and St. Luke. There are alſo eight chapels of eaſe, fifteen Roman Catholic chapels, ſix meeting-houſes for Preſbyterians, one for Anabaptiſts, four for Methodiſts, two for Quakers, one Jewiſh ſynagogue, a church for French Calviniſts, a Daniſh and a Dutch church.

St. Patrick's Church. The cathedral of St. Patrick is the earlieſt and moſt extenſive ſtructure raiſed for the celebration

bration of Chriſtian worſhip in Ireland; but it is built in a hollow, which occaſions the whole church, with the ſurrounding cloſe and contiguous ſtreets, at the times of heavy rains, to be under water even to the depth of ſeven feet or more; and the adjacent buildings are ſingularly mean and dirty. It is not in a rich ſtyle of Gothic architecture; yet is, on the whole, a large and reſpectable pile of building. The form is that of a croſs, placed as uſual eaſt and weſt, in which direction it is 230 feet long, excluſive of a chapel attached to it at the eaſt end, with which it is near 300 feet long, and 150 broad from the north to the ſouth arm of the croſs. It has but one principal aiſle, with ſmall ſide aiſles, occupying the whole weſt part of the croſs, and is, from the weſt entrance to the choir door, 130 feet long, 75 broad, and 77 high: down the ſides of the great aiſle are eight Gothic arches, on octagonal arched piers, which ſupport a timber roof, flated. The whole aiſle is remarkably deſtitute of any ornament but a few good monuments. The head of the croſs is wholly taken up with the choir, which is furniſhed in the uſual ſtyle of cathedrals, with richly ornamented Gothic ſtalls for the prebendaries. There is a handſome communion-table, on either ſide of which, againſt the walls, are curious old monuments. The pariſh church of *Saint Nicholas*, which once formed the north arm of the croſs, was in the ſame ſtyle of architecture with the main building, but is now entirely in ruins. The chapter-room makes the oppoſite or ſouth arm; it has a very inferior appearance, being but a plain apartment, with naked walls. The chapel, at the eaſt end of the cathedral, was originally dedicated to the Bleſſed Virgin; but has of late been ſet apart to the uſe of French Proteſtants, who exerciſe divine ſervice in it according to the rites eſtabliſhed in the church of Ireland. The tower is at the north-weſt corner of the cathedral: it is a ſquare of 38 feet, and 125 feet high: on the top is a plain octagonal ſpire of ſtone, riſing fifty feet to the point. The cathedral was erected about the year 1190; the chapel of the Bleſſed Virgin ſome little time before the year 1271; the tower in 1370, and the ſpire in 1750.

Other Churches. There are no other churches worthy of notice; St. Thomas's, in Marlborough-ſtreet, and St. Catharine's, in Thomas-ſtreet, are the moſt conſiderable.

COMMERCIAL AND MUNICIPAL EDIFICES.

THE THOLSEL. The Tholſel, or Toll Stall, as anciently called, from its being the place where toll-gatherers attended to receive the toll or cuſtom of ſuch goods as were liable to city impoſt, cannot at this time be conſidered as an elegant object, or even of much ornament to the city. It was erected in 1683. Its ornaments are in a ſingular, but bold and maſterly ſtyle; and there are ſtatues of Charles II. and James II. very good, and in perfect preſervation. The Tholſel is ſituated weſt of the caſtle, in a narrow ſtreet of trade, called Skinner-row, immediately at the entrance of a very ancient commercial ſtreet, called High-ſtreet. Its form is nearly a ſquare, ſixty-two feet in front, by ſixty-eight in depth; within is a ſpacious open hall, with four robuſt pillars, ſimilar to other two without, which ſupport the floor of the upper ſtory. At the far ſide of the hall, on the left, is the recorder's court, where the quarter ſeſſions are held, and where criminals are tried, thoſe indicted for treaſon and murder excepted. Here is alſo held what is termed the Monday court, for the trial of civil actions to any amount; and in the ſame place, by an act called the civil bill act, all debts not exceeding twenty pounds, nor leſs than forty ſhillings, are determined before the recorder, at a trifling expence: this court is held twice a-year. On the floor above are ſeveral ſtately apartments, decorated in the old heavy ſtyle, adorned with ſome paintings of the mayors of the city and of ſome kings and queens of England. In the weſt front is the Guildhall, or council-room for the merchants; another, the largeſt and richeſt, is on the eaſt ſide, where are held the city feaſts. At the lower end of this room is a handſome apartment for the grand jury to meet in: there are beſides ſeveral leſſer chambers, where the city records, &c. are depoſited. Under the hall are a ſpacious kitchen, and other convenient apartments. In the hall of the Tholſel are elected the members who repreſent the city in parliament. Adjoining the Tholſel is the Crown-office, and Court of Conſcience or Requeſts.

ROYAL EXCHANGE. The Royal Exchange is one of the principal ornaments of the city, from the combined advantages of an excellent ſituation, beautiful form, and fine diſplay of architectural elegance; it is nearly in the centre of Dublin, on the ſouth ſide of the Liffey, oppoſite a ſpacious trading ſtreet, called Parliament-ſtreet; commanding a proſpect of great length over Eſſex-bridge, to the end of Capel-ſtreet; the moſt populous line of communication from the north to the ſouth ſide of the town; now almoſt equally divided by the Liffey. The appearance of the Exchange in the approach from Capel-ſtreet

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is particularly ſtriking; built on nearly the higheſt ground of the city, called Cork-hill; it is expoſed to ſight with conſiderable advantage, and terminates the view with an object at once grand, cheerful, and elegant. The form of the Exchange is a ſquare, of little more than one hundred feet; with a handſome dome on the centre, fifty-five feet diameter. Three fronts are expoſed to view, richly decorated in the Corinthian taſte; the two principal, the north and weſt, have each a fine portico, of pillars thirty-ſeven feet high. The eaſt front is in a narrow paſſage, called Exchange-alley, and ornamented with pilaſters only. The whole of this building, within as well as without, is built of Portland ſtone.

On entering this edifice, the attention is immediately called to many conſpicuous beauties; but above all, to the general form. Twelve fluted pillars of the compoſite order, thirty-two feet high, are circularly diſpoſed in the centre of a ſquare area covered by an highly enriched entablature; above which is a beautiful cylindrical lantern, about ten feet high, perforated by twelve circular windows, ornamented with feſtoons of laurel leaves; the whole crowned with a handſome ſpherical dome, divided into hexagonal compartments, enriched and well proportioned; and lighted from the centre by a large circular ſky-light. On each ſide the twelve columns, which ſupport the dome, are impoſt pilaſters of the Ionic order, the ſame as thoſe which appear on the outſide of the building, covered with a flute frieze and enriched cornice. The ſide walks of the ſquare are covered with a flat cieling, the height of the impoſt pilaſters, with enriched ſoffits from the pilaſters in the centre, to others oppoſite them againſt the wall. At each end, within, of the north front, is a handſome oval ſtone ſtaircaſe, lighted by oval lanterns, in highly enriched coved cielings, by which is acceſs to the coffee and other rooms, diſpoſed around the cylinder of the dome, over the ambulatory below. To the north front is the coffee-room, which is an excellent apartment, extending from one ſtaircaſe to the other, lighted by three windows, between the pillars of the portico, and by two oval lanterns, in a coved cieling, richly ornamented in ſtucco, on coloured grounds. In the weſt is a large room for the merchants to depoſit ſamples of their ware, called the brokers' office, but uſed as a ſitting-room for the commiſſioners of bankrupts. To the ſouth are the apartments of the houſekeeper. On the eaſt is the merchants' committee-room, with a convenient anti-chamber. Oppoſite the north entrance, between two of the pillars which ſupport the dome, is an excellent ſtatue of King George III. in a Roman military habit, placed on a white marble pedeſtal caſt in bronze, by J. Van Noſt, preſented by the Earl of Northumberland,

berland, when Lord Lieutenant. Although the Earl was warm and active to forward this undertaking, he had not the honour of laying the foundation-ſtone, which was done with great ceremony by his ſucceſſor, George Lord Viſcount Townſend, in the ſecond year of his adminiſtration, 1769, five years after the grant for the purchaſe of the ſcite, and it was opened in 1779. The Exchange is founded on a rock, which extends along Parliament-ſtreet under Eſſex-bridge, to Liffey-ſtreet, on the north ſide of the river, and well known by the name of *Stand faſt Dick.*

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE. The Cuſtom-houſe is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the river, more than half a mile eaſt from Eſſex-bridge, on a nearly flat ground, with a convenient broad quay before it, about three feet above high water mark; it is a full mile within the harbour, and by its beauty and magnificence conveys very exalted ideas of Dublin to thoſe who approach from the bay.

The whole building is inſulated, exhibiting four decorated fronts, anſwering almoſt to the cardinal points of the compaſs. The form is an oblong quadrangle, three hundred and ſeventy-five feet long, by two hundred and five feet deep. Within are two courts, eaſt and weſt, divided from each other by the centre pile, which, one hundred and thirty-one feet broad, extends the whole depth, from north to ſouth. It is jointly the houſe of cuſtoms and exciſe; and, beſides all the offices appropriated to the buſineſs of the revenue, contains apartments or dwelling-houſes for the chief commiſſioners. The north and ſouth are the principal fronts; the eaſt and weſt, excepting only the returns of the wings at the extremities, are large warehouſes. The whole is decorated with columns and ornaments, of the Doric order, with ſome innovations in a bold ſtyle. Over the portico in the centre is a handſome cupola, on exactly the ſame plan as thoſe at Greenwich-hoſpital, but of ſomewhat leſs dimenſions, and differing a little in the decorations of the elevation: the dome, twenty-ſix feet diameter, is quite plain, covered with copper; on the top of which, on a circular pedeſtal, is a ſtatue of Hope reſting on her anchor, twelve feet high, and one hundred and thirteen feet from the ground. On the attic ſtory, and in other parts, are ſtatues and other ornaments in ſculpture.

The north front differs conſiderably from the ſouth; it has a portico of four columns in the centre, but no pediment. On the entablature over each column are ſtatues repreſenting Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; it has neither arcades nor receſſed columns, on each ſide the centre, as the ſouth; the wings only are the ſame; nor is the general effect at all comparable

parable with the ſouth. The centre piles in the eaſt and weſt fronts, which are alike, are each nearly one hundred feet in extent, with open arcades below, of ſeven arches, joining them: to the wings, are arches which give entrance to the courts. Although there is no great diſplay of ornament in theſe fronts, yet from the boldneſs of the parts, and the arcades in the middle, they have a very good effect. The courts are plain and convenient, the whole of them, with great part of the north, and both the eaſt and weſt fronts, are built of native mountain ſtone; but the whole of the ſouth front, and all the decorative parts of the three others, are of Portland ſtone.

The long room, in the way to which is a beautiful octagonal veſtibule under the cupola, is a ſpacious ſuperb apartment, ſeventy feet ſquare; down each ſide is a range of compoſite columns, about twelve feet from the walls, ſupporting an arched cieling, in which are two large circular lanterns, richly ornamented with devices in ſtucco; which, with ſemicircular windows above the entablature, over the columns, pleaſingly illuminate the room; between the columns are deſks for the officers and clerks. The trial and board rooms, ſituated on the north front, are alſo very handſome apartments; and the ſtair-caſe leading to them is much admired for its light appearance and ingenious conſtruction.

The Parliament House. Although Ireland has not, ſince the Union, had a ſeparate legiſlature, yet the building in which the ſenate was uſed to ſit will always be contemplated with reſpect. It may be termed the nobleſt ſtructure Dublin has to boaſt; and it is no hyperbole to advance, that this edifice, in the entire, is the grandeſt, moſt convenient, and moſt extenſive of the kind, in Europe. The portico is without any of the uſual architectural decorations, having neither ſtatue, vaſe, bas-relief, tablet, ſculptured key-ſtone, or ſunk pannel, to enrich it; it derives all its beauty from a ſimple effect of fine art. This noble ſtructure is ſituated on College-green, and is placed nearly at right angles with the weſt front of the college. The inſide correſponds with the majeſty of its external appearance. The middle door, under the portico, leads directly into the Commons' Houſe, paſſing through a great hall, called the Court of Requeſts, where the people were uſed to aſſemble during the ſittings of parliament. The Commons' room is circular, 55 feet in diameter, inſcribed in a ſquare. The ſeats are diſpoſed around the centre in concentric circles, one riſing above another. About fifteen feet above the level of the floor, on a cylindrical baſement, are diſpoſed ſixteen Corinthian columns, ſupporting a rich hemi-

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ſpherical dome, which crowns the whole. A narrow gallery, for the public, about five feet broad, with very convenient ſeats, is fitted up, with a balluſtrade in front between the pillars. Around the Commons' room is a beautiful corridore which communicates by three doors into the houſe, and to the committee rooms, clerks' offices, coffee rooms, &c.

The *Houſe of Lords* is ſituated to the right of the Commons, and is alſo a noble apartment; the body is forty feet long, by thirty wide, in addition to which, at the upper end, is a circular receſs 13 feet deep, like a large niche, wherein the throne was placed, under a rich canopy of crimſon velvet; and at the lower end is the bar, 20 feet ſquare. The room is ornamented, at each end, with Corinthian columns, with niches between. The entablature of the order goes round the room, which is covered with a rich trunk cieling. On the two long ſides of the room are large pieces of tapeſtry, now rather decayed; one repreſenting the famous battle of the Boyne, and the other, that of Aughrim; they were executed by a Dutch artiſt, and are eſteemed very fine.

The Parliament-houſe was begun during the adminiſtration of John Lord Carteret, in 1729, and was executed under the inſpection of Sir Edward Lovet Pearce, engineer and ſurveyor-general; but completed by Arthur Dobbs, Eſq. who ſucceeded him in that office, about the year 1739, the expence amounting to nearly 40,000*l.*

The entrance of the Houſe of Lords having for a conſiderable time been conſidered inconvenient, it was determined to give it a diſtinct acceſs, with ſome additional rooms. Accordingly, in 1785, a noble portico, of ſix Corinthian columns, three feet ſix inches in diameter, covered by a handſome pediment, now forms the entrance to the Houſe of Peers. The entablature of the old portico is continued around to the new; but the column of the one is of the Ionic, and that of the other of the Corinthian order; an aſtoniſhing incongruity.

The Commons' Houſe was alſo improved, from deſigns by Mr. Robert Parke, architect, between Auguſt 1787, and October 1794; the external additions render the weſtern ſide of the building nearly equal to the eaſt; and the inſide of this addition compriſes many conveniences, particularly a ſuite of committee-rooms, apartments for the houſekeeper, ſerjeant at arms, &c., and a large hall for chairmen to wait in. On February 27. 1792, while the Houſe were ſitting, a fire broke out, which conſumed the Commons' Houſe; but it was rebuilt on nearly its former conſtruction.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

THE charitable eſtabliſhments in the capital of Ireland are here detailed in the order obſerved by Lieut. Archer in his Statiſtical Survey of the County.

DUBLIN GENERAL DISPENSARY. This inſtitution is held at No. 28. Temple-Bar, and formed on the model of the diſpenſaries in London.

HOSPITAL FOR INCURABLES. This was founded by the Muſical Society, who diſpoſed of the produce of their annual ſubſcription, at the cloſe of each year, to ſuch charitable purpoſes as the exigencies of the times required. In 1744, they thought proper to apply their fund entirely to the relief of ſuch incurables as were diſguſting or offenſive to the ſight, and founded an Hoſpital. The undertaking met with deſerved encouragement, and they were enabled to accommodate twenty-eight perſons, which was all their houſe could at that time contain; but the evident utility of the ſcheme procured for it ſuch liberal ſupport, that a large edifice has been provided, near Donnybrook road, for the reception of a much greater number of patients.

MERCER'S HOSPITAL. In 1734, Mrs. Mary Mercer gave a large houſe, at the end of Stephen-ſtreet, for an hoſpital for the reception of ſick poor, and appointed governors and directors. The ground, being glebe, was given by Dr. Whittingham, then Archdeacon of Dublin. At the ſame time, the city of Dublin gave 50*l.* toward fitting up the houſe; and ſoon after, ſeveral contributions were made in aid of the undertaking. But the chief ſupport of this uſeful inſtitution has been the benefit ariſing yearly from a muſical performance at St. Andrew's Church. The governors were incorporated by act of parliament in 1750, and enabled to recover legacies, receive donations, and purchaſe lands.

CHARITABLE INFIRMARY. This inſtitution, ſituate in Jervis-ſtreet, and opened Auguſt 12. 1798, was the firſt eſtabliſhed in Dublin for the reception of ſick and wounded poor, who are maintained, and ſupplied with all neceſſaries, and attended by phyſicians and ſurgeons, who alſo diſtribute medicines to ſuch as cannot be received in the houſe. There are twenty truſtees choſen annually, who meet the firſt Friday of each month.

CHARITABLE LOAN. The governors of the Charitable Muſical Society (incorporated by act of parliament) for lending out money, intereſt free, to indigent tradeſmen, meet at St. Anne's veſtry-room, every Thurſday at noon, to receive applications.

cations. To perſons well recommended money is lent, in ſums not leſs than 2*l.* nor more than 5*l.* at one time, for which the borrower muſt give a note, with two approved ſureties, payable in ſuch manner as the governors ſhall appoint: during the drawing of the lottery they were uſed to decline lending.

THE MAGDALEN. This aſylum is like that of the ſame name in London; it is ſituated in Leeſon-ſtreet, was founded by Lady Arabella Denny, and opened June 11. 1766.

BETHESDA; LOCK PENITENTIARY; AND WORKHOUSE. Theſe charities are ſituated in Dorſet-ſtreet. The object of the Lock Hoſpital is like that of the foundation of the ſame name in London, and the others are for the reception and employment of thoſe who have received its benefits.

HOUSE OF INDUSTRY. The Houſe of Induſtry in Channel-row was partly founded for receiving ſuch as were, by age, ſickneſs, or misfortune, rendered incapable of earning their bread, and for relieving the city from the clamours and impoſtures of ſturdy beggars. An act of parliament was paſſed in 1773, and a grant made of 4,000*l.* to carry this deſign into effect; and it is ſince ſupported by ſubſcriptions, benefactions, grants from parliament, and parochial collections. Poor perſons of every deſcription and age are admitted into this houſe, lodged, fed, but not clothed; for many having gone into the houſe merely to obtain garments, which they ſoon diſpoſed of for ſpirituous liquors, they are now obliged to ſupply themſelves, by their own earnings, from ſhops kept for that purpoſe within the walls of the inſtitution. The average number of poor annually maintained in this houſe is 1718; thoſe who are able to work are employed, and allowed eight-pence in the ſhilling, with which they may buy additional articles of food, &c. from a ſhop in the houſe. The modes of employment are ſpinning, knitting, ſhoe-making by women, callico-weaving, carpentry, turning, making hair-combs, making clothes. The inſtructors in hoſiery and callico-weaving receive no ſalaries, but one-third of the earnings of the children. The eſtabliſhment of ſoup-kitchens, in 1801, for the relief of the poor, branched out from this inſtitution, and proved the means of ſaving the lives of thouſands. The diſtribution of rice, by government, was alſo an effectual relief.

THE LYING-IN HOSPITAL. The Lying-in Hoſpital was founded by Dr. Bartholomew Moſſe, ſurgeon and licentiate in midwifery, who furniſhed a large houſe in George's lane with beds and other neceſſaries, and opened it for the relief of pregnant poor women, in March, 1745: he proſecuted his plan, at his own expence, until the evident utility of the inſtitution induced ſeveral to encourage ſo laudable an undertaking. It is remark-

remarkable, that this was the firſt inſtitution of its kind in the Britiſh dominions. In 1747, application was made to Dr. Moſſe, by perſons in London, for a copy of his plan and regulations, which he tranſmitted, and the year following, a like hoſpital was eſtabliſhed in Brownlow-ſtreet, London. The number of patients making application for admiſſion, induced Dr. Moſſe to extend his views: he took ground in Britain-ſtreet, and, at the riſk of his whole fortune, finiſhed the gardens at the rear of the Hoſpital, as a place of public reſort, applying the profits to the purpoſe of his intended plan. He laid the foundation-ſtone of the preſent ſtructure, called the Rotunda, on May 24. 1751, old ſtyle. By the expenditure of his whole fortune and ſome aids, which produced 8,000*l.*, and by grants from parliament to the amount of 12,000*l.* more, the building was completed; 2,000*l.* were farther granted by parliament for the Doctor's use, as a reward for his philanthropy and ſpirited beneficence. A charter was obtained in 1756, incorporating ſeveral noblemen and gentlemen guardians and managers, and appointing Dr. Moſſe maſter for life. It was opened on December 8. 1757, by His Grace the Duke of Bedford, then Lord-Lieutenant, when fifty-two women advanced in pregnancy were admitted. Dr. Moſſe did not long enjoy the ſatisfaction reſulting from the attainment of his wiſhes, and the termination of his indefatigable labours: he died February 16. 1759, in the 47th year of his age. By his will he made over the hoſpital to James, Earl of Kildare, and to Lord Viſcount Ludley. The Hoſpital gardens, for their ſize, are beautiful in an eminent degree, and contain an aſtoniſhing variety. The Rotunda garden was originally incloſed by a high wall, which was taken down in 1784, and a handſome iron-railing, on a dwarf wall, with lamps thickly placed, put in its ſtead: this was done in the adminiſtration of Charles, Duke of Rutland, and called, after him, Rutland-ſquare.

This Hoſpital is a principal ornament of the north-weſtern quarter of the city. It ſtands in a cheerful ſituation on the north ſide of Great Britain-ſtreet, about a third of an Iriſh mile from the river; from whence, to nearly oppoſite the Hoſpital, extends the nobleſt ſtreet in Dublin, called Sackville-ſtreet: this avenue is 150 feet broad, very well built, and inhabited by perſons of the firſt rank and opulence. The architecture of the Hoſpital has ever been much admired: the curved colonnades in the ſouth front have no communication to detached buildings, but were conſtructed merely for effect, and to gain a court-yard in front: the rear of the Hoſpital, to the garden, is in a plainer ſtyle, but elegant. The bulk of the building is 125 feet in front, and 82 feet in depth, and is faced with an excellent

excellent native ſtone, both front and rear. The interior of the edifice claims acknowledgement for convenience and neatneſs only. There are ſeven wards, containing in the whole ſeventy beds; with apartments for the chief phyſician, two aſſiſtants, apothecary, matron, midwife, houſekeeper, nurſes, and chaplain. The chapel occupies the middle of the front, on the ſecond ſtory; in the ceiling of which are ſome very fine bold examples of figures and ornaments in alto relievo, executed in ſtucco. Under the chapel is a ſpacious hall. A maſter of this Hoſpital is elected by the governors, ſixty in number, every ſeven years. The Hoſpital is ſupported by entertainments in public rooms adjoining; by contributions in the chapel; by private benefactions, and by yearly ſubſcriptions of 12*l.* 10*s.* for each bed.

THE ROTUNDA. Although the Rotunda is merely a place of faſhionable amuſement, it is ſo inſeparably connected with the Lying-in Hoſpital, that it is moſt proper to notice it in this place. The Rotunda and New Rooms adjoining now form a very diſtinguiſhing feature in the city. This noble circular room was built in the year 1757, for a place of public entertainment. In 1785, an elegant ſuite of additional rooms was begun, and the Rotunda itſelf was much beautified in its external appearance. The foundation-ſtone of the New Rooms was laid by the Duke of Rutland, July 17. 1785. The tympan of the pediment in the centre is adorned with his arms, encircled by the collar of the Garter, and other ornaments. The New Rooms form a range of 101 feet in extent, parallel with Cavendiſh-row, the eaſt ſide of the ſquare. The inſide of the Rotunda has a very pleaſing appearance: it is 80 feet in diameter, and 40 in height, and without any middle ſupport. It is decorated around with 18 Corinthian pilaſters, 25 feet high, ſtanding on pedeſtals; above which, between the pilaſters, are enriched windows, which appear on the outſide: the ceiling is flat, with large and bold compartments: the ornaments of the whole are now ſomewhat antiquated, but it has nevertheleſs a grand effect on public nights, when illumined, and filled with the native beauty and faſhion of the country. The orcheſtra projects into the room, and is generally filled with the beſt muſical abilities the city can afford: the effect of ſound is good.

The new rooms are ſuperb: they conſiſt of two principal apartments, one over the other, 86 feet long, by 40 broad: the lower is the ball, the upper is the tea and ſupper-room. There is a ſmaller ball-room on the ground floor, 60 feet by 24, which alſo ſerves as a room for refreſhments when the larger is occupied. The upper room is very elegantly enriched: be-

tween

tween pilaſters againſt the walls are trophies, where ſhields of cut glaſs, and other glittering ornaments, have a very brilliant appearance: there are ſeveral leſſer rooms for cards and refreſhments. All the receipts, after defraying the incidental expences, go to the ſupport of the Hoſpital.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL. This charity was founded in 1704, but by an act of parliament, paſſed in 1728, the old corporation was diſſolved, and a new one erected, compriſing governors of rank and fortune, together with the lord mayor, aldermen, ſheriffs, and clergy of the city for the time being. Fifteen or more of theſe are annually choſen, the firſt Monday after the 24th June, to be acting governors. By this act they were to receive common beggars, and children of all denominations, above ſix years old, for which a fund was granted to the governors, ariſing from an eſtate of 113*l.* 2*s.* per annum, from a tax on all carriages plying for hire within the city of Dublin and its liberties, and from a tax of three-pence in the pound on houſes. By another act, from March 25. 1730, the governors were to receive into the houſe all expoſed and deſerted children of either ſex; and, for further aid, an additional tax of three-pence in the pound was laid on houſes. The younger children are ſuckled by nurſes maintained in the houſe until proper nurſes in the country, with proper certificates, can be provided, with whom they remain till they are ſix years old. When removed to town, they are inſtructed in reading, writing, and the principles of the Proteſtant religion, and afterwards ſent to the ſpinning or ſome other ſchool, until they are put apprentices.

ORPHAN HOUSES FOR GIRLS AND FOR BOYS. The firſt of theſe inſtitutions was opened in 1791, the latter in 1793: they are ſupported by voluntary contributions: the children are maintained, educated, and apprenticed.

MASONIC FEMALE ORPHANS' SCHOOL. In May 1797, this inſtitution was founded for relief of the deſtitute female children of free-maſons, and by the help of voluntary ſubſcriptions, the encouragement of the grand lodge, and an annual charity ſermon, the committee have been enabled to take premiſes in Gordon's Lane, Charlemont-ſtreet, and to maintain and educate a great number.

PATRICIANS. Theſe are a large and uſeful body of men, who contribute toward maintaining a number of orphans. Any perſon may belong to this ſociety, on paying an annual ſum of ſix Britiſh ſhillings.

STRANGERS' FRIENDS' SOCIETY. This inſtitution was formed in 1790. No recommendation is required, but evident diſtreſs. On receiving notice, from whatever quarter, of perſons known,

or ſuſpected to be in diſtreſs, a viſitor is appointed, who comes at an unexpected time; and if the diſtreſs is found to be real, relief is afforded and continued.

Reduced Literary Teachers. This ſociety is for the ſupport of the widows and orphans of its members, and is rather a benefit ſociety than one for charitable purpoſes.

Society for Relief of Sick Lodgers. The nature of this inſtitution is explained in its name. It began in 1790.

The following charities require only to be named to ſhew their nature and utility.

Fever Hospital,—Smithfield; eſtabliſhed in 1801.

Dispensary for the Infant Poor. Opened March 25. 1800, in Exchequer-ſtreet.

Charitable Dispensary. Opened in November 1794, in Meath-ſtreet. There is alſo a *Diſpenſary* for the pariſhes of St. Mary, St. Thomas, and St. George, held in Denmark-ſtreet, which was the firſt of the kind eſtabliſhed in Dublin.

County of Dublin, or Meath Hospital,—is ſituated on the Upper Coombe; it was appointed the infirmary for the county of Dublin, by act of parliament, in 1774. It was firſt inſtituted for the relief of poor manufacturers in the Earl of Meath's Liberty. It is ſupported by private ſubſcriptions.

Simpson's Hospital, *Great Britain-ſtreet.* This Hoſpital was incorporated by act of parliament, in March 1780, and opened in November 1781, for the reception of poor, decayed, blind, and gouty men; the annual income is 2,500*l.*, and it conſtantly ſupports 36 gouty, and 36 blind men, who are comfortably clothed, dieted, and lodged.

Swift's Hospital, or St. Patrick's Hospital for Lunatics and Ideots. This charity was founded in 1745, by Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, and incorporated by charter Auguſt 6. 1746. The Dean bequeathed 11,000*l.* for this hoſpital. The truſtees purchaſed an eſtate of 400*l.* per annum, and the fund has been ſince conſiderably augmented by legacies, but it is not ſufficient for more than 38 lunatics and ideots, and 12 more patients received as boarders, for the ſum of thirty guineas each. The men and women are kept apart from each other, by a diviſion in the building.

Stephens' Hospital, *Stephens'-lane, James ſtreet.* In 1710, Dr. Stephens, an eminent phyſician, bequeathed 600*l.* a-year to his ſiſter for life; and after her deceaſe, to truſtees, for erecting and endowing an hoſpital, for the relief and maintenance of curable poor perſons. Mrs. Stephens, in 1720, began to build on a more extenſive plan than the fund would ſupport, but, by the aſſiſtance of benefactions, was enabled to complete two-thirds of the building, and furniſh accommodations for 40 patients

patients in 1724. An act of parliament was obtained in 1729, appointing 23 governors, and their ſucceſſors, with power to purchaſe lands to the amount of 2,000*l.* a-year, and to have a common ſeal. A third of the hoſpital remaining unfiniſhed, the governors opened a ſubſcription, which brought in 1,400*l.*, and as Mrs. Stephens continued to pay 450*l.* per annum, the building was ſoon completed, and rendered capable of containing 300 patients. They ſupport in the hoſpital, conſtantly, 70 poor decayed houſekeepers, tradeſmen, ſervants of both ſexes, and poor labourers, beſides externs, who attend for advice and medicine.

NICHOLAS'S HOSPITAL, *Francis-ſtreet, united with that of* ST. CATHARINE'S. This eſtabliſhment was opened April 1. 1753, and is capable of receiving 40 internal ſurgical patients.

WESTMORELAND LOCK HOSPITAL, *Townſend-ſtreet*,—was opened for the indiſcriminate admiſſion of all indigent perſons, on November 20. 1792. An eſtabliſhment has been lately added for relief of ruptured poor.

OUZEL GALLEY. The deſign of this reſpectable foundation, is to determine commercial differences by arbitration, ſuperſeding the neceſſity of going to law, or litigating matters that are of little moment. This uſeful ſociety applies the coſts, that are decreed againſt the parties, to charitable purpoſes.

RATHFARNHAM SICK POOR DISPENSARY,—eſtabliſhed on March 25. 1801, for relief of the ſick in the neighbourhood of Rathfarnham. Any labourer, loſing his work by ſickneſs, has medical relief, and is allowed three ſhillings per week during his illneſs or incapacity to work. There is another charitable inſtitution, ſupported with great ſpirit by the gentlemen of this neighbourhood, which is that of diſtributing wheat-meal, oatmeal, herrings, and other proviſions to the poor, conſiderably under the market price.

CONFINED DEBTORS. —— Powell, Eſq. has veſted 800*l.* in the lord mayor and aldermen's hands, from the intereſt of which a benefaction of a twelvepenny loaf, a piece of beef, ſome fuel, and 1*s.* 1*d.* in caſh, are given on Chriſtmas-eve to each confined debtor.

BRIDGES. There are ſix bridges over the Liffey; namely, Eſſex, Ormond, Old Bridge, Bloody Bridge, Allen, otherwiſe called Queen's Bridge, and Carliſle Bridge. Of theſe the firſt is entitled to a particular deſcription as one of the ornaments of the city.

ESSEX BRIDGE. Eſſex Bridge was firſt built in 1676, by Mr. Humphrey Jervis, during the adminiſtration of Arthur Earl of Eſſex, whoſe name it bears; but being greatly decayed, an elegant ſtructure was undertaken in 1753, upon the model

of Weſtminſter Bridge, and completed in 1755, at an expence of 20,661*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* Between the land abutments, Eſſex Bridge is 250 feet long, and 51 feet broad; being ſeven feet wider than Weſtminſter Bridge, which is only 44 feet broad, although more than four times the length of the other. Eſſex Bridge conſiſts of five ſemicircular arches, the centre and wideſt of which is 48 feet ſpan. It is of very eaſy aſcent, and confeſſedly a maſter-piece of workmanſhip.

Places of Amusement. In theſe Dublin does not abound. The Rotunda has already been mentioned, from its connexion with the Lying in Hoſpital.

The Theatre. Nothing in the appearance of the Theatre intitles it to particular notice: it is of moderate ſize, and rather humbly than ſplendidly decorated. It has ſerved as a nurſery for much of the talent which has been moſt ſucceſsfully diſplayed in London, and ſometimes as a retreat for thoſe whom caprice had removed from the height of public favour, or whom age or infirmity had rendered deſirous of more eaſe than a London engagement affords.

Streets and Squares. The improvement of the city in recent times has at leaſt kept pace with, if it has not outſtripped, that of any other city or town in the Britiſh dominions. The improvement of Sackville-ſtreet and Dame-ſtreet, the building of Merrion-ſquare, and many other grand and beautiful undertakings of the ſame kind, ſhew at once the unextinguiſhed ſpirit and the increaſing proſperity of the people.

St. Stephen's Green. The ſpacious area, called Saint Stephen's Green, is eſteemed the largeſt ſquare in any city in Europe: the circumference, by the houſes, has been moſt commonly eſtimated an Engliſh mile, but is ſomewhat about two hundred yards ſhort of that meaſurement. The houſes around, are moſtly in the modern plain taſte of building, and of brick; ſome are large dwellings, with high flights of ſteps to the doors, which give them a reſpectable, if not a grand appearance. Incloſed by a low wall, from a carriage-way around, is a broad gravel-walk, which encompaſſes the Green, from which it is divided by a foſſe. On each ſide of the walks are lime-trees, which, when in leaf, diffuſe an effect and cheerfulneſs, which without them the ſquare could not impart. In the centre of the Green is an equeſtrian ſtatue of George II. in a Roman military habit, caſt in braſs by Van Noſt, and erected in 1758.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO IRELAND.

Each coaſt of Ireland furniſhes a number of detached iſlands.

Eastern.

Eastern. Beginning with the eaſt from the bay of Carrickfergus, the firſt are,

The Coplands. Theſe two iſlands are named after a family which formerly flouriſhed in Ulidia.

Borry. The next is the Iſle of Borry; and there are on that ſide no others worth obſerving in coaſting toward the ſhore of Dublin; for thoſe of Loughlane, and one or two ſmall ones in the haven of Carlingford, and ſome other mere rocks diſperſed in the ſea, are too inconſiderable to be noticed.

Holm Patrick, or the Iſle of St. Patrick, lies on the coaſt of Dublin; it is ſo called, at leaſt traditionally, in memory of that ſaint's landing there in 432, from whence he paſſed over to the Continent, to plant Chriſtianity there.

Skerres. The rocky iſlands, called the *Skerres*, are next to theſe; and on the ſame coaſt is *Lambey*, called Limnas by Pliny; and by Ptolemy, Limni; where, as tradition goes, St. Neſſan was frequent in watching, faſting, and praying.

Dalkey. Dalkey lies three miles ſoutherly from hence, called by ſome St. Bennet's Iſland; from whence coaſting along the ſhore, by the lands, called the North, Middle, and South Grounds, ſeamen come to *Legeri*, or the little iſland belonging to the county of Wexford, perhaps the ſame as the Edros of Pliny. Next to theſe are thoſe called the *Saltes Iſlands*, which are thought likewiſe to belong to this county.

Southern Islands. Proceeding now to the ſouth-eaſt and ſouthern coaſts, the firſt little iſland is that called *Capel*, three or four miles diſtant from the port of Youghal. More to the ſouth are *Cotten Iſland*, *Deſton*, *Dacollon*, *Cray*, and *Douhin*; with others of leſs note.

More to the weſt appears the iſland called by ſeamen *Cape Clare*, where St. Kiaran the elder was born; and lower in the Bay of Baltimore are many other iſlands, among which are *Iniſhſtircan* and *Iniſhkircan*, *Anghra*, the long iſland, the iſle called the *Horſe*, and lower in the Bay of Bantry the Iſle of *Whiddy*.

Western Islands. On the ſouth-weſt, at ſome diſtance in the main, appear three iſlands, the greateſt, called the *Cow*, the ſecond the *Bull*, the third the *Calf*. In the mouth of the river Kilmar, are alſo ſome ſmall iſlands; and pearls are found in the ſhells of this river, and on the neighbouring coaſt.

Skeleges. In the Main are alſo the three *Skeleges*, being rocky iſlands; in one of which was an Abbey, dedicated to St. Michael, but afterwards tranſlated to the continent.

Valentia. Next to theſe is the Iſland of *Valentia*, or *Dariry*, which for ſome miles over againſt the ſhore of Kerry, is divided with a ſmall frith from the continent.

Blaſkets. More to the north lie the *Blaſkets*, with the adjacent

jacent rocks; *Inis Cutte*, or *Inis Cathaig*, are within the mouth of the river Shannon, and were an epiſcopal ſee.

Iſles of Arran. The three iſlands of Arran lie at the entrance of the Bay of Galway, the biggeſt is called *Killenoy*, the next *Kitronon*, and the third *Shere*; but others diſtinguiſh them by the names of *Iniſcer*, *Iniſmane*, and *Arranmore*: the laſt is the chief of them, ſignifying *Great Arran*, and called likewiſe *Amnan-emb*, or *Aran* of the Saints, from the ſepulchre of the ſaints buried there. In 1661, theſe iſles gave title to an earl, in the perſon of Richard, ſecond ſon to James, Duke of Ormond; but he dying without iſſue male, the honour was revived by William III., and conferred on Charles Butler, brother to the late Duke, in 1693.

There are many little iſlands between Arran and the continent; but more to the north: among others, are *Ardillan*, *Ilanenvraher*, *Iniſharke*, the Iſland of *Coines*, and *Inis-be-find*, that is, the iſland of *White Heifer*, where great heaps of ambergreaſe are ſometimes found. On the ſame coaſt appear *Inisturk* and *Cerey*, between theſe and the continent lie many little iſlands in the Bay of *Bariſol*, next the two *Achils*, or *Akils*, the greater and the leſs; and that rock, ſo well known to ſeamen, called the Black Rock, and then *Iniſker* and *Davilan*.

Northern Islands. After ſome ſmall iſlands which lie at the mouth of the river Erer, and the ports of Donegal and Calabar, are the iſles called the *North Arrans*, to diſtinguiſh them from the other Arrans already mentioned; near to which lie the rocks which ſeamen call the *Stags*; next are *Cladagh* and *Torre*, more to the eaſt, lying eight miles from the continent, and a pretty fertile ſoil.

Inis Oen. Inis Oen, or the Iſland of Eugenius, though called an iſland, is indeed a peninſula, and joined to the continent by an iſthmus; the greateſt ornament of which is Londonderry.

Strahal. The next are *Gloſſedy* and *Strahal*, or *Inis Strahal*, being rocky iſlands, frequented by tortoiſes that betake themſelves thither to ſleep and breed.

Raghlin. Next to theſe are the *Skerres*, and after them *Raghlin*, which is part of the county of Antrim, diſtant a league from the continent, and is called *Rionea* by Pliny; but the Iriſh hiſtorians call it *Rocarn*, or *Recrain*.

Nine Maids. Between that and the continent lie ſome ſmall iſlands, and more ſouthward nine rocky ones, called the *Nine Maids*, not far from the peninſula of *Magie*; and next to theſe are the *Coplands*, already noticed.

POLITICAL STATE

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

FOURTH GENERAL DIVISION.

SETTLEMENTS AND COLONIES.

UNDER this head it is purpoſed to give an account of the Dependencies of the Britiſh Crown in all parts of the World.

EUROPE.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

SITUATION. Man is an iſland in the Iriſh ſea, diſtant from St. Bee's Head, in Cumberland, thirty nautical miles; from Burrow-head, in Scotland, ſixteen; and from Strangford, in Ireland, twenty-ſeven miles; the latitude of the middle of the iſland being fifty-four degrees and ſixteen minutes north. Its length rather exceeds thirty miles, and its breadth ten, at the greateſt width; and running out to very narrow points at the extreme ends. The circumference is ſeventy miles, and the contents of the whole two hundred and twenty ſquare miles; of which, the centre is wholly occupied by a range of heathy mountains, now partially exhibiting cultivated ſpots. This iſle, although forming the centre of the Britiſh empire, and occupying a very conſpicuous ſtation in the neighbourhood of many powerful ſtates, was yet ſo little known to or noticed by the ancients, that the natives account for its acknowledged obſcurity in thoſe early times, by aſcribing its concealment to magical arts.

NAME. The name of Man is ſuppoſed by ſome to refer to its ſituation amidſt ſurrounding kingdoms, from the Saxon

word "Mang," or "Among:" others believe it to be derived from Maune, the ſurname of St. Patrick; but the natives, who call it in their own language Manning, have a tradition that is was ſo deſignated from a prince, who is ſtill the hero of their fables, called Mananan.

SETTLEMENT. This country has been in early times colonized by different ſtates. According to tradition, the firſt poſſeſſors were the ancient Britons; but on the irruptions of the northern nations, the Iſle of Man became ſubject to the Scots, who were expelled by one Cunedan, a Dane; for his ferocious courage ſurnamed the Dragon of the Iſle. He, who is believed by the natives to be the founder and the legiſlator of their kingdom, is by them called Mananan Mac Lyr: they pretend that he was ſon to a king of Ulſter, and brother to Fergus II. who reſtored the monarchical government in Scotland, in 422. The hiſtory of the iſland contains little that is worthy of notice. It was a ſeparate dominion, although its ſovereigns were ſubjects of England or of Scotland. After ſeveral viciſſitudes it fell into the poſſeſſion of Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, firſt the ally and afterwards the enemy of Henry IV., in conſequence of whoſe rebellion, the iſland was ſeiſed to the king's uſe, by Sir William and Sir John Stanley. To Sir John the king made a grant for one year, in 1406, which was afterward revoked, and a new grant paſſed the great ſeal in 1407, beſtowing the iſland, Caſtle Peel, and lordſhip of Man, and all the iſlands pertaining thereto, with all royalties, regalities, and franchiſes, on him and his heirs, in as full and ample a manner as had been granted to any former lord or king, to be held of the crown of Great Britain, per *homagium legium*, paying to the king a caſt of falcons at his coronation. The ſovereignty thus beſtowed remained long in the family of Stanley. Sir Thomas, created firſt Lord Stanley, and afterward, for his great ſervices to Henry VII. in Boſworth-field, Earl of Derby, was the third ſovereign of this line. His grandſon and immediate ſucceſſor Thomas, reſigned the title of king, hitherto borne by its ſovereigns, chooſing, as he ſtates in a letter to his ſon, to be conſidered a great lord rather than a petty king. In 1651, when the loyal and gallant James, commonly called the great Earl of Derby, was taken priſoner by the rebels, and himſelf executed as a traitor, the iſland was beſtowed by the parliament on Lord Fairfax. He held the power only from 1652 till 1661 or 1662, when the king of England being reſtored, Charles, Lord Derby, was reinſtated. Earl Charles was involved, during his whole life, in the difficulties ariſing from narrow circumſtances; yet, by obſerving a ſtrict economy, and by ſome judicious ſales and purchaſes, he ſucceeded in laying a foundation which eventually

ally reſtored, in ſome degree, the wealth of the family. In 1672, William, Earl of Derby, ſucceeded to this inheritance; and dying without iſſue in 1703, his brother James became Lord of Man. At his acceſſion, the iſle was once more in a ſtate nearly approaching to deſtruction. The leaſes granted for three lives had nearly expired; and as no proviſion had been made relative to their renewal, the neglect of agriculture had become ſo general, that repeated ſeaſons of ſcarcity, almoſt approaching to famine, had occurred. The people, wholly given up to the fiſhery, or to the purſuit of a contraband trade, were dependent on the oppoſite coaſts for the corn required for their ſuſtenance. Biſhop Wilſon was the firſt who had courage to point out to the Earl how entirely this injurious ſyſtem had originated in the lords of the iſlands themſelves. His judicious remonſtrance being ſeconded by one equally firm and reſpectful from the Keys, induced his Lordſhip to grant to his dependants that act of ſettlement which is juſtly conſidered as the Manx Magna Charta, as by it the poſſeſſors were firmly eſtabliſhed in their lands, and the deſcent arranged in perpetuity, on payment of certain fixed fines, rents, and duties to the lord.

From this auſpicious period, the progreſs of improvement has been decided, though its firſt advances were ſomewhat impeded by the prevalence of the ſmuggling trade and other adventitious circumſtances, only conquerable by time. James, the ninth earl of Derby, dying without children in 1736, the lordſhip of Man devolved on James Murray, firſt Duke of Athol, by the Lady Amelia Sophia, daughter of James, ſeventh earl of Derby; whilſt the earldom paſſed in the male line to Sir Edward Stanley, deſcended from Thomas the firſt earl.

Soon after the acceſſion of the Duke of Athol, the Britiſh government, finding all other means employed to check the illicit trade ineffectual, made overtures to purchaſe his right and reveſt it in the crown; but, as the duke expreſſed great reluctance to comply with this propoſition, the affair was ſuffered to ſtand over, on his promiſe to impoſe ſuch reſtraints on the people as ſhould protect the revenue from further injury. The efforts of the duke, if indeed they were faithfully enforced by his agents, proving ineffectual, and he dying in 1764, leaving only one daughter, Charlotte Baroneſs Strange, who was united in marriage to her couſin, the male heir to the dukedom, his Grace, in right of his wife, thus became poſſeſſed alſo of the Iſle of Man; and ſcarcely was he ſettled in the property, when the queſtion of the reveſtment was again brought forward; and in January, 1765, a bill was preſented to the Houſe of Commons for more effectually preventing the miſchiefs to the revenue and commerce of Great Britain and Ireland from the clan-

clandeſtine and illicit trade to and from the Iſle of Man. The Duke and Ducheſs having petitioned and been heard by counſel, a negotiation was entered into, and they jointly offered (though with every expreſſion of reluctance at the ſacrifice impoſed on them) to reſign their ſovereign rights in the Iſle of Man, for the ſum of 70,000*l.*; and on theſe terms a treaty was concluded and carried into effect by an act of parliament. This transfer gave great diſſatisfaction to the people of the iſland; the more as they had never been regularly apprized of it while in progreſs, their Houſe of Keys never aſſembled, nor their conſent to ſuch a change in their political condition obtained or even deſired.

In the endeavour to extirpate ſmuggling, ſuch reſtraints were impoſed on trade, that it was found neceſſary to diſpatch three commiſſioners to England, to repreſent the miſerable condition of the inhabitants, and endeavour to obtain redreſs. Happily this ſucceeded: ſome clauſes of unneceſſary ſeverity were repealed, and encouragements held out to the fair trader. From this time, the character and ſituation of the Manx has been gradually improving: the advantage of being governed by a great nation, inſtead of a petty lord, is univerſally felt. Thoſe who had already accumulated large gains from the contraband trade, were, by the change, obliged either to ſit down upon the lands they had acquired, and turn their thoughts to agriculture, or to embark their capital in regular commerce. Very few ſunk back into the ſtate of apathy formerly indulged. Induſtry, though ill directed, had been awakened; ſome luxuries, too, had crept in, which, though not always beneficial to individual character, are ſtill, up to a certain height, univerſally productive of national advantage.

But whatever purſuits were ſuperinduced, the herring-fiſhery, ſupported by ancient habits and early aſſociation, was regarded as the chief good; and to this purſuit, requiring neither talent nor labour, the maſs of the peaſantry ſtill confined their hopes and exertions; on which account agriculture, with its moderate returns and permanent advantages, was yet almoſt entirely neglected.

The Duke of Athol, in making a ſale of the iſland, had reſerved all his feudal rights as lord of the ſoil, with certain other profits coming under the ſame deſcription. But theſe were ſo ſtrenuouſly reſiſted, that in 1790, his Grace reſorted to Parliament to eſtabliſh his mutilated privileges, and on his petition, after much contention, a bill was brought in: the Keys petitioned againſt that clauſe which affected the inſular rights; and at length, after ſevere debate, the bill was thrown out.

In 1791, a caſe was preſented to the Privy Council, containing

ing ſuch ſtrong allegations, that commiſſioners were appointed to viſit the iſland, and make a thorough inveſtigation, both as to the particulars in diſpute, and alſo into the general ſtate of the revenues, produce, and trade. The reſult of this inquiry proved, that the ſum of 70,000*l.* given for the ceſſion had been calculated on a revenue ill managed and unfairly collected; conſequently, falling much ſhort of what, under a better ſyſtem, it might have produced; and that, in other reſpects, the property meant to have been reſerved to the noble complainant, was unneceſſarily crippled. In conſequence of this report, a freſh bill was offered in 1805, on which the former contentions were renewed in both Houſes; and at length the affair was decided, the manorial rights clearly aſcertained and eſtabliſhed, and an additional ſum of 3,000*l.* per annum out of the conſolidated fund was ſettled on the Duke and his heirs for ever.

General Description. The ſcenery of the Iſle of Man, except on the north ſide, where it is well wooded, has no great beauties; there is nothing to elevate or aſtoniſh, and not much to admire. The iſland is divided into two unequal portions by a chain of moderately high mountains, running from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, broken at one part, between Mount Kreevey and South Barrule. The moſt conſiderable ſummits are Snawfel and North and South Barrule, the laſt two forming its extremities. The height of Snawfel, by the barometer, is 580 yards above the level of the ſea; and the two Barrules are inconſiderably lower

Rivers. The high land between North Barrule and Mount Kreevey gives riſe to ſeveral rivers, the chief of which empty themſelves into the ſea at Ramſey, at Laxey, and at Douglas. *Ramſey* river is the longeſt; and the flat country, through which it finally runs, permits ſpring-tides to produce their effect upon it two miles from the ſea. The northern branch of *Douglas* river riſes on the weſtern ſide of Mount Garrahan. The northern ſide of South Barrule contributes a portion of its waters to *Peele* river, and another to the river of *Glenmay*. The ſouthern ſide ſends forth a ſtreamlet, one of the branches of *Caſtletown* river, which joins the other branch a little above Athol bridge, running nearly ſouth. All the ſtreams are very ſhallow; and ſmaller ones, not large enough in ſummer to turn a mill, are very frequent.

Minerals. The mineral productions of this iſle are of little value or curioſity. The chief metallic repoſitories are veins of lead and copper ores near Laxey, at Foxdale, and at Bredahead, near Port Erin.

Climate. The climate of the Iſle of Man is rather milder in

in winter than that of the neighbouring ſhores; froſt and ſnow being of very ſhort continuance. The heat of ſummer, on the other hand, is not ſo great: the harveſts are conſequently late: the grain does not arrive at its full ſize; and the ſtraw for fodder is leſs valuable. Froſts ſeldom make their appearance before Chriſtmas, and latterly have been ſo ſlight as little to impede vegetation. Gales of wind and falls of rain are frequent, and of long duration. In the ſpring, they render the ſeeding difficult and incomplete, and are very prejudicial to the tender ſhoots of corn.

Population. Mr. Curwen ſays, that at the commencement of the laſt century, the number of inhabitants on the iſland was under ten thouſand. In 1755, he computes them at fifteen thouſand. In 1777, only twelve years after the reveſtment, the numbers had increaſed to twenty thouſand; and they are now eſtimated at thirty-five thouſand.

Towns. The towns and places which principally demand notice are, Douglas, Caſtletown, Derby Haven, the Calf of Man, Peel Town, Ramſey, and Laxey. The villages are all on the coaſt, the interior being chiefly divided into ſmall farms, or left in wild commons.

Douglas. This town, from various cauſes, has a preeminence over all the others, both in trade and population, although it is not the ſeat of government. The approach by ſea preſents a moſt impoſing aſpect: on turning either of the heads that form the ſemicircle of the bay, which is of conſiderable extent, the eye takes in at once a variety of objects calculated to raiſe fairy hopes of the interior. On the centre ſtands the magnificent free-ſtone palace of the Duke of Athol, called Mona Caſtle: the hill behind this manſion is planted and cultivated, ſo as to draw forth and embelliſh all its natural advantages, though the ſpace devoted to this purpoſe does not exceed five or ſix acres. At a ſhort diſtance, is a neat and elegant villa belonging to Colonel Steuart; and in addition to theſe, ſeveral modern houſes, at different elevations, overhang the bay, and give an air of modeſt opulence and comfort to the whole. In a receſs at the ſouth ſide riſes the town with a handſome pier; and a light-houſe, of claſſical elegance. The whole bay is two miles acroſs, and is ſheltered from all winds except the north-eaſt; both its points are rocky and dangerous, and in the middle is a bed of rocks, called "Conniſter," on which, in the ſtormy ſeaſon, many veſſels find their deſtruction. The whole town, which is neither elegant nor commodious, forms a triangle, the longeſt ſide extending from the bridge to the pier, but as buildings are riſing in every direction, this ſhape will ſoon be loſt. The pier is in length five hundred and twenty feet,

feet, in breadth forty, and handſomely paved with free-ſtone. At the diſtance of four hundred feet it ſuddenly expands fifty feet to the right: this part being raiſed forms a ſemicircle, to which there is an aſcent by a flight of ſteps, and in the centre of the area is the light-houſe, which, according to the opinion of nautical men, is more to be celebrated for its beauty than utility, being ſituated conſiderably within Douglas Head, and ſo nearly on a level with the town, that its light is often confounded with that of the neighbouring houſes. The harbour, which is eſteemed the beſt dry one in the Iriſh Channel, admits veſſels of conſiderable burthen, at high water, cloſe to the quay. The Cuſtom-Houſe is the beſt building in the town, and conveniently placed for buſineſs. The new ſtreets in the ſuburbs are well ſituated, and well conſtructed for comfort and accommodation. The Aſſembly Room is ſpacious, but not elegant or even neat. A theatre has been erected, but the encouragement being inſufficient to induce good performers to make even temporary viſits, the building is diverted to other purpoſes. Among the moſt promiſing eſtabliſhments, are a public library and reading-room. There is only one printing-preſs in the iſland, from whence a newſpaper iſſues weekly.

In Douglas is a ſmall chapel, dedicated to Saint Matthew; but the place of worſhip moſt frequented is a new church, a little above the town, which is neatly finiſhed, and where the pews let at a very high rate. The pariſh-church, called Kirk-Braddan, is at a diſtance of two miles: there are, beſide theſe, a Methodiſt meeting-houſe, a Preſbyterian chapel, and alſo one for Catholics.

The town has alſo a ſchool for education on Dr. Bell's plan; a houſe of reception for the poor, who are maintained without a rate, by contributions collected after divine ſervice; hot and cold baths; and a poſt-office for the whole iſle, for which a packet from England is made up every Monday.

Caſtletown. Although tradition has handed down no authentic account of the antiquity of the four principal towns, yet there is reaſon to believe that Caſtletown, or, as it was originally called, Ruſhen, is the moſt ancient; and that it may have been nearly coeval with the caſtle, though the ſurrounding buildings, not being framed like that for duration, muſt have been many times renewed ſince the firſt formation of the town. All thoſe now in exiſtence appear to have been raiſed within the laſt century, except one, now the George Inn, but formerly the abode of the lieutenant, and of the lord himſelf, when on the iſland. The venerable caſtle was erected in 960, by Guttred, the ſecond Daniſh prince in ſucceſſion from King Orry.

This

This building, which is remarkable for ſolidity, bears a ſtrong reſemblance, and was probably conſtructed on the ſame plan with the caſtle of Elſineur, in Denmark. It is of a figure not eaſily deſcribed. A ſort of ſtone glacis runs round the keep, and includes ſome other buildings now fallen to ruin. This glacis was added by Cardinal Wolſey, during the time that he was guardian to Edward, Earl of Derby. Within the walls are ſome convenient and partly moderniſed apartments, appropriated to the uſe of the Lieutenant-Governor, and alſo a large court-room devoted to public uſe. On the walls are three confined buildings where the records are kept, and the buſineſs of the Rolls Office is conducted. There are alſo two rooms ſometimes granted as an indulgence to perſons confined for debt; but the great maſs of unfortunate perſons of this deſcription have hitherto been crowded together in thoſe apartments ſet apart for that uſe; whilſt felons were confined in the interior of the keep. Theſe were in a very bad ſtate, but great improvements have been recently effected. Caſtletown being the reſidence of the Lieutenant-Governor, and uſually alſo of the Southern Deemſter; and as all law proceedings are conducted there, it muſt be conſidered as the metropolis of the iſland. The ſtreets are regular and airy: in the centre is an open ſpace or ſquare, around which are ſeveral very excellent houſes, and at one end a neat and well appointed chapel. The Keys have a houſe appropriated to their uſe, but it is a mean building. The free-ſchool is conſidered a very beneficial inſtitution: it owes its riſe to Biſhop Barrow, who founded it in order to ſecure a ſucceſſion of ſtudents, who ſhould be properly educated for the miniſtry. The town has an aſſembly-room, a reading-room, and is the ſeat of the iſland bank.

Derby Haven. About a mile and a half acroſs the ſands is the iſthmus which joins the peninſula, called Langneſs Point, to the ſhore, and by its bend on one ſide forms an excellent and ſecure creek, called Derby Haven, where are the remains of a round tower, built by the Earl of Derby in 1603. This was no doubt a commanding point, and much better calculated to repel an enemy than Caſtle Ruſhen. Near the fort at Derby Haven are the ruins of a church, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a cathedral. It is now uſed as a place of interment for Catholics.

Port Erin. About two miles weſt of Caſtletown is *Port le Moray;* and a little beyond that *Port Erin,* a romantic ſecluded bay, offering an excellent harbour. Near this place are the Giants' Quoiting Stones, as they are called, being large maſſes of unhewn ſlate ſtanding erect; and a little further is a barrow, called Fairies' Hill, very generally believed to owe its riſe to the

labours of thoſe viſionary beings, but, in reality, thrown up in commemoration of Reginald, King of Man, who was ſlain in ſingle combat by Ivar, in 1248.

The Calf. From Port Erin it is uſual to make the paſſage to the ſmall iſland called *The Calf*, always an object of curioſity to viſitors; the diſtance from which place is three miles; the circumference of Calf is computed to be five miles, including an area of ſix hundred acres. A very ſmall part of this ſurface is converted into arable land, but the whole forms a fine ſheep-walk. It is tithe free, and, except in the garden of the farmer, there is not a tree or ſhrub on the whole iſland. Rabbits abound every where, and are a great ſource of profit in the ſpring. The Calf is alſo the reſort of immenſe numbers of ſea-fowl, who form a moſt ſtriking and picturesque ſhew from the water, ſitting in innumerable tiers, one above another, on their neſts in the clefts of the rocks. The ſcenery is uncommonly bold and beautiful, eſpecially when thus adorned by its white-breaſted inhabitants.

Peel. Peel, which was originally called Holm Town, is twelve miles diſtant from Douglas, and eight from Caſtletown; it is more remarkable for its ancient than its preſent rank. In the feudal times, this town muſt have derived conſequence from its vicinity to the caſtle, and when the ſmuggling trade was at its height, Peel was a ſtation of importance, but it is now little more than a narrow, dirty, fiſhing town. The population is eſtimated at twelve hundred; the bay abounds with excellent fiſh, and on this coaſt the herrings have, for many years, been taken in the greateſt abundance.

Peel Caſtle ſtands on a peninſula about one hundred yards weſt of the town; at low water it is joined to the main land by a ſtone-wall, ſhelving to the top. Formerly, the approach was by a flight of ſteps, but time has rendered them nearly uſeleſs, and travellers now make their way to the ruins by clambering over the rocks. Until the reveſtment of the iſland in the Britiſh government, this fortreſs was garriſoned by native troops in the pay of the lord, who uſually gave them Engliſh officers; but, at the ſale of the royalty, the armoury was cleared of the match-locks and other ancient weapons, the garriſon reduced, and the whole has been ſuffered to fall into a ſtate of ruin. The remains, however, have yet an impoſing appearance, the walls are ſtill flanked by towers, and the outline is pretty well defined; it incloſes an irregular polygon of two acres. The building was originally compoſed of a ſort of red ſlate, winged and faced in many parts with red ſtone. Almoſt in the centre is a ſquare pyramidical mound of earth, each of its ſides facing one of the cardinal points. The admeaſurement

ſurement of this elevation is ſeventeen yards, and it is ſurrounded by a ditch five feet and a half broad, but of the uſe for which it was deſigned no account is extant; it is conjectured either to have been an eminence whence a commander might harangue the troops, or, with more probability, the burial place of ſome great perſonage. In this fortreſs two eminent perſons have been impriſoned; Elenor, wife to Humphrey, Duke of Glouceſter, in the reign of Henry VI., and the great Earl of Warwick, who, on one of his reverſes, was baniſhed to this iſland, and detained here. Within the caſtle walls are the remains of two cathedrals, one dedicated to St. Patrick, and believed to be the firſt Chriſtian church erected here; the other, inſcribed to St. Germain, and built about 1245. This laſt is deſcribed by ſeveral ancient authors, particularly Waldron, as having been richly ornamented, and abounding in monumental inſcriptions; but if they ever exiſted they are now decayed.

Three miles from Peel is the celebrated *Tynwald Mount*. Its appearance is pleaſing from the neatneſs with which its ſingular form is preſerved, and venerable from its antiquity, and the intereſting purpoſes to which it is entirely dedicated. It is a circular barrow, of moderate height, formed into a pyramid of three circles, the loweſt being about eighty yards in circumference, and the top not more than ſeven feet in diameter. On this, when the legiſlative aſſembly is collected, a canopy and chair are placed for the lord, or his deputy, and the different officers, clergy and keys, take their reſpective ſtations below him, whilſt the ſurrounding area is filled with the people. Near the mount ſtands St. John's Chapel, from whence, after prayers and a ſermon, the ſeveral perſons forming the Tynwald court move in proceſſion to the mount, the ancient formulæ being ſtill obſerved; though from the great change of circumſtances which has taken place ſince the origin of the inſtitution, the ceremony is ſo completely diveſted of the dignity of former days, that it excites little attention, and hardly now affords a holiday-gaze to the mob.

Ramſey. The approach to the town of Ramſey lies over a ſtone-bridge of three arches, which croſſes the Sulley river. The town is ſmall and irregular; but derives a ſlight degree of importance from being the ſeat of juſtice for the northern diſtrict. There is a pier which runs out a few hundred feet to ſea, and is terminated by a light-houſe; the bay is ſpacious, and the anchorage good, but the harbour, from neglect, has become nearly uſeleſs, and will only afford ſhelter to veſſels of very ſmall burthen. The country about Ramſey, as well as the neighbourhood, is far ſuperior to the town; the former

being in a high ſtate of cultivation, and chiefly inhabited by native families of conſiderable reſpectability, amongſt whom a pleaſant aſſociation is kept up: nor do they ſo decidedly exclude ſtrangers from all participation in their hoſpitality, as is ſometimes done in other parts of the iſland.

Laxey. This is a village of little trade, compoſed of about thirty houſes, the retreat of fiſhermen; but the glen is deſerving of notice, for the romantic beauty of its ſcenery. It is well planted with trees; about half way up are ſome copper-mines, from whence no great advantages have as yet been derived, though they are occaſionally worked; a little way up the valley is a flax ſpinning-mill. Kirk Lorian, the pariſh-church, is a mile from the village. At ſome diſtance on the road to Douglas, are twelve ſtones placed in an oval form; juſt without the oval are two others, ſix feet high, one of which is cloven from top to bottom: the whole are erected on a mound of earth, elevated four or five feet; in the centre of which is an excavation ſeven feet long and three wide: the natives have connected ſeveral ſupernatural tales with this ſpot, but they give no rational account of its origin; moſt probably the whole is a remnant of Druidiſm.

Religion. The founder of Chriſtianity in the Iſle of Man was St. Patrick, who, in the year 444, making a voyage with a company of thirty religious perſons from Liverpool to Ireland, was, by the interpoſition of Providence, driven into this iſland, where he arrived in the latter end of the reign of Mananan Mac Lyr, whom he found, together with his people, ſunk in idolatry, and, as he ſays, much given to magic. His eloquence, and the miracles he performed, were ſo perſuaſive, that in three years he and his followers effected the converſion of the natives, or expelled thoſe who remained obſtinate in their errors. Germanus was his ſucceſſor, and from that time the ſee has been pretty regularly filled.

Bishopric. The ſee of this iſland is termed the Biſhopric of Sodor and Man. The origin of the former title is doubtful. Beatſon conjectures, that the word *Sodor* is a corruption of σωτηρ (our Saviour), to whom the cathedral of Iona was dedicated; while others imagine that it is a corruption of *Suder* (Southern); the Norwegians being accuſtomed to call the moſt northern Hebrides *Nordereys*; and the ſouthern, of which Iona is one, *Sudereys*. All the laſt mentioned iſlands were in the dioceſe of the Biſhop of Sodor. The derivations already given relate to Iona or the Southern Hebrides; but a charter is ſtill extant, dated 1505, wherein Thomas Earl of Derby and Lord of Man, confirms to Huam Heſketh, biſhop thereof, all the

lands uſually pertaining to the biſhopric: and this charter would induce a belief that the word Sodor was derived from the little iſland contiguous to Peel, on which is placed the cathedral of Man. It runs thus: "*Eccleſiam cathedralem Sancti Germani in Holm, Sodor, vel Pele vocatam, eccleſiamque Sancti Patricii ibidem et locum præfatum in quo eccleſiæ præfatæ ſitæ ſunt.*" For ſome time, the biſhops were occaſionally appointed by the king of the iſle, occaſionally elected by the clergy, but ever ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Stanley, the King, or Lord of Man, has conſtantly appointed, and it is reſerved to him in the act of 1765. Among the biſhops of Sodor and Man may be found ſeveral of the brighteſt ornaments of the eccleſiaſtical name, as Dr. Iſaac Barrow, Dr. Thomas Wilſon, whoſe life and miniſtry were formed upon the apoſtolic model, and his ſucceſſor Dr. Mark Hildeſley, who completed the tranſlation of the Holy Scriptures into the Manx language, a taſk left imperfect by Dr. Wilſon. The Biſhop being nominated by the Lord, the nomination is communicated to the King, who diſmiſſes him to the Archbiſhop of York for conſecration. This is ſaid to be the reaſon why the biſhop is not a lord of parliament, as none can have ſuffrage in that Houſe who does not hold immediately of the King himſelf. By an act of parliament, the 33d Henry VIII. this biſhopric is declared in the province of York. The dioceſe contains only 17 pariſhes, of which five are market-towns, the reſt villages.

Constitution, Laws, and Courts.

The King. The King of Great Britain has the appointment of all the military, and the chief civil officers. He alone has the power of pardoning criminals; and may in council hear and finally determine all appeals from the deciſion of the governor or of the Keys. His conſent is neceſſary to the paſſing of all laws, and the prerogative of rejection is often exerciſed. In 1798 ſeveral bills were returned altered to the Keys, one of which, in its new form, they rejected.

The Lord. Whatever may have been the rights of the ancient kings of Man, their preſent repreſentative has a ſeigniory or lordſhip paramount of the higheſt order. In him are veſted the franchiſes or royal prerogatives, uſually incident to ſovereign authority; ſuch as the patronages of the biſhopric, eſcheats, effects of traitors and felons, wrecks of the ſea, eſtrays, deodands, mines, derelict lands, chaſes, (which word compriſes in the fulleſt extent the excluſive right to game,) foreſts,

foreſts, parks, warrens, huntings, and piſcaries; all which are reſerved to the noble family of Athol in perpetuity, under the ancient honorary ſervice of rendering two falcons to the king on his coronation day.

THE GOVERNOR. The Governor holds his office by His Majeſty's appointment. He is chancellor, *ex officio*, and by himſelf or deputy hears appeals, not relative to land, from the deciſion of inferior courts, reverſing or confirming them according to his judgment. The conſent of himſelf or of his lieutenant is neceſſary to the making of a law; but not that of the lord proprietor, unleſs he is alſo governor or lieutenant. The proprietor may, however enter *caveats* againſt the King's conſent, and have his petition heard; and in or about the year 1789 he actually did ſo. The Duke of Athol is at preſent both lord and governor. He is bound by oath to deal truly and uprightly between the King and his ſubjects, and indifferently between party and party; to call together, when he thinks it neceſſary, the council of the iſle, and to do and perform theſe and all other things appertaining to the government, and the poſt and office of Governor-in-Chief and Captain-General, according to the purport and extent of his commiſſion.

THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR. The Lieutenant-Governor, or Governor, as he was uſually called, poſſeſſed whatever power his lord or ſovereign thought proper to confer, and this was uſually the whole. He was termed the repreſentative of Majeſty. The Scotch and Engliſh lord proprietors meddled little with internal affairs, and rarely viſited this dominion; the chief care of government devolved therefore upon the Lieutenant. When the appointment came to be made by the King of England, the nature of the office became certain. The Lieutenant has now all the powers of the Governor during his abſence; and none during his preſence, except what the Governor does not think proper to aſſume. It is not, however, his practice to conſent to the making of laws; as the ſtatute books ſhew only one inſtance in which he has done ſo, which was in 1776. All other acts ſpecify the conſent of the Governor-in-Chief, whether the Tynwald court be held before himſelf or the Lieutenant-Governor.

THE COUNCIL. This body is convened at the pleaſure of the Governor, to aſſiſt and adviſe him, as a privy or executive council; and alſo in the adminiſtration of juſtice, at his chancery, exchequer, and appellate courts. It uſually conſiſts of the Lord Biſhop, the Receiver-General, the two Deemſters, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Water-Bailiff, and Attorney-

General, together with the Archdeacon, and the two Vicars-General. The duty of the Council, when not acting in their legiſlative or judicial capacity, is, in caſes of emergency, to act for the public good in a ſummary way; as in laying an embargo prohibiting the exportation of grain or victuals in time of ſcarcity, and ſimilar acts of authority. Reſpecting the perſons who compoſe and have a right to a ſeat and voice in the Council, which, with the Governor, forms the ſecond branch of the legiſlative power in the iſland, various opinions have been offered. In 1776, the Governor excluded from the Council the Biſhop and the Vicar-General, alleging that their ſeats were held only through courteſy. The ſpiritual officers, however, maintained their right: and the claim, although proteſted againſt by the Attorney-General, was allowed by the Lieutenant-Governor.

The Deemsters. The Deemſters are judges of the higheſt antiquity, and, till the paſſing of certain modern acts of Tynwald, which have abridged their authority, poſſeſſed a higher magiſterial power, both in the adminiſtration of the common and criminal law, than any other judges in Europe. It is recorded that they governed the people by a *jus non ſcriptum*, which was committed to their honour and fidelity as a thing holy and ſacred, and by them communicated to poſterity by oral tradition; conſequently, whatever they juridically pronounced, was received as law; whence, from all antiquity, and even to a recent period, the iſlanders deſignated their common law by the title of *breaſt-law*, as being depoſited in the breaſts of their Deemſters and Keys, and which only on important occaſions was divulged to the people. The Deemſters were always the lord's chief judges of the common law, and privy-councillors; in the ancient court-rolls they are ſtyled "*juſticiarii domini regis*;" and to this day, in civil matters, their juriſdiction is moſt extenſive and unlimited; and in all public acts and inſtruments of legiſlation, they ſign their names apart from the other officers. From theſe circumſtances, and from the nature of their oath, it may be inferred, that the Deemſters are not, in ſtrictneſs, members of council, but attend the meetings of that body to give their advice, bearing a reſemblance to the attendance of the twelve judges upon the Houſe of Lords.

The House of Keys. The origin, antiquity, and conſtitution of this body are loſt in the obſcurity of time; but its exiſtence is conſidered more recent than that of the Deemſters. The Keys are landholders, and their number is now twenty-four, but it was not always ſo great. They have been referred to as a legiſlative power when only twelve: in one of the old ſtatutes it is recorded, that their exiſtence was wholly at the

will of the Lord, without whoſe conſent none were to be. This deciſion, which is ſtated to have been from the Deemſters, in anſwer to a queſtion of Sir John Stanley, ſecond Lord of Man, was exceedingly ill received, and although recorded in the ſtatute-book, it was yet virtually reſcinded almoſt as ſoon as made. The original form of election is no where mentioned; but immediately after the above declaration, ſuch was the ferment it excited, that it was thought prudent on the part of the Deputy-Governor, Byron, to grant the people a ſhare in the election. Accordingly, in 1422, he ſent out his precept to the ſix ſheadings, directing them ſeverally to elect ſix men, out of which ſix he choſe four to repreſent their reſpective diſtricts, and theſe made up the twenty-four Keys, by whoſe advice and concurrence, at that time, ſeveral laws and regulations were made. Why this mode of election has not been preſerved, or how the people have loſt a right ſo invaluable as that of chooſing their own repreſentatives, is not explained; cuſtom has, however, completely abrogated this privilege, and the practice now eſtabliſhed is, that when a vacancy happens, the remaining members elect two perſons, one of whom receives the approbation of the Governor, and thenceforward retains his ſeat for life, unleſs he vacates by voluntary reſignation, accepting a place in council, or is expelled by the vote of the majority for ſome high crime or miſdemeanor. What mode would be adopted, if the Governor diſapproved of both the nominations, is not ſettled; nor is it known that the caſe has ever occurred. The Keys cannot aſſemble without a ſummons from the Governor, and his mandate diſſolves the ſitting without delay or demur. In the ſeparate meetings of the Keys, the number of thirteen is required to form a houſe. They elect their own Speaker, who holds his office for life, and they decide by a majority. The qualifications of a member are, to be of full age, that is twenty-one years, and to poſſeſs landed property in the iſland. Non-reſidence, or even being a foreigner, is no impediment to election. Their privileges were of more value in the feudal times than at preſent; they being exempt from all duties and ſervices to the lord, and free to kill game in any part of the country. To charge a Key with miſconduct in the performance of his duty, ſubjects the offender to a penalty and loſs of ears. This body have always poſſeſſed the confidence of the people, and though ſelf-elected, ſeem never to have abuſed their power. The office is attended with much trouble and no emolument; but it is every day riſing in conſideration, and places an individual in the ſame relative ſtation as being a member of the Houſe of Commons does in Great Britain.

THE TYNWALD. This court is compoſed of the Governor and Council, the Keys, and the Deemſters as aſſiſtants. It is the ancient legiſlature of the iſland, and by its ſtatutes alone the inhabitants claimed to be governed. The name is by ſome derived from two Daniſh words, *ting*, an aſſembly of the people, or court of juſtice; and *wald*, a field or place, or poſſibly fenced; by others, from the Britiſh words *tyng* and *val*, ſignifying "the juridical hill."

This court, or aſſembly, was in ancient times held annually, or ſometimes twice in a year, at a place called the Tynwald Mount, ſituated about three miles from Peel. The way up this artificial elevation is by a flight of ſteps of turf on the eaſtern ſide. The diameter of the ſummit does not exceed ſeven feet. Round this, and three feet below it, is an annular plot about four feet wide; below is another, ſix feet wide; and further down another, ſtill wider. The circumference of the outer circle is nearly eighty yards; all the angles are rounded, and almoſt the whole ſurface is of turf. This place of meeting was ſufficiently commodious while the ſeat of government was at Peel Caſtle, but ſince the reveſtment of the iſland in the crown, the aſſembly has more generally been held at Caſtle Ruſhen. In former times the court was opened with a grand proceſſion, and held with all the circumſtances which the iſland could afford to give it a ſolemn effect; but in latter days theſe ceremonials have been much abridged and diſregarded. Formerly no law could have effect unleſs agreed to by the court, and proclaimed, by their order, in the Manx language from the Tynwald Mount. Since the reveſtment, courts have been held, and ſtatutes paſſed for internal regulation, the propriety of which has never been queſtioned, but the legiſlature of England has aſſumed the entire power of enacting laws reſpecting the cuſtoms or port-dues of the iſland, and alſo of regulating or prohibiting any manufactures which might be liable to affect the revenue: in the internal economy and laws it has not interfered.

COURTS OF LAW. In the Iſle of Man are eſtabliſhed various courts of civil and criminal juriſdiction; the principal of which, excluſive of the Houſe of Keys, are the Court of *Chancery*, the Court of *General Gaol Delivery*, the Court of *Exchequer*, the *Common Law* or *Sheading Courts*, the two *Deemſters' Courts*, the Court of *Admiralty* or *Water-Bailiff's Court*, the *Eccleſiaſtical Courts*, and the Courts of the *High-Bailiff* of each of the four principal towns; all which have an original juriſdiction, and controlling grounds of determination: but the courts poſſeſſing appellate juriſdiction are the Keys, and His Majeſty in council.

For

For the more convenient adminiſtration of juſtice, the iſland is divided into two diſtricts, with a deemſter or judge for each; but the Courts of Chancery, General Gaol Delivery, Exchequer, and the ſouthern Common Law Courts, are held in Caſtle Ruſhen; and all the judges and law officers, except the eccleſiaſtical, are commiſſioned by His Majeſty, *durante bene placito.* Theſe diſtricts are ſubdivided into ſix ſheadings or diviſions, over each of which is annually, about Midſummer, appointed by the Governor a coroner, with extenſive powers; the name and office of ſheriff being here unknown.

By the ancient conſtitution, the King or his Lieutenant, aſſiſted by the Deemſters, Council, and Keys, took cognizance of all pleas, civil and criminal; for the great Tynwald Court was originally held only for the promulgating of laws, and, like the Wittenagemote, or General Council of the Saxons, formed one ſupreme court, or *Aula Regia*, for private juſtice and public buſineſs; and this did not interfere with the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, for the exerciſe of which there were, from remote antiquity, ſeparate tribunals. But in later periods, as the iſland increaſed in population, commerce, and wealth; and conſequently, when ſuitors and cauſes became more numerous, it was neceſſary to inſtitute the different courts before mentioned. In all the courts, the party is at liberty to plead his own cauſe; but in matters of importance, the trial is uſually conducted by an advocate, who, by the ſtatute of 1777, muſt firſt be commiſſioned by the Governor, and take the uſual oaths. By this act, if an attorney ſhould become bail in any cauſe, or carry on any ſuit by way of champerty, he ſubjects himſelf to fine and impriſonment at the diſcretion of the court, and is rendered incapable of practiſing in future. By the act of reveſtment the courts were left untouched, excepting that, the Lord's juridical authority being aboliſhed, the court of His Majeſty in council became the immediate, as well as the laſt court of appeal from the juriſdictions within the iſle.

Appeals. When an appeal to His Majeſty in council is demanded, the party muſt petition the Governor, and enter into a bond, with ſureties, in ſuch penal ſum as he may think proper, to proſecute the appeal within a limited time; the lodgment of the appeal is conſidered to be a ſufficient proceeding to prevent the recovery of the penalty, and afterwards it behoves the reſpondent to preſs the cauſe to a hearing and ultimate deciſion.

Such being the general outline of the adminiſtration of juſtice, it is not intended to deſcribe with minuteneſs the juriſdiction and proceedings of each court, but merely to mention the preſiding power and moſt ſtriking circumſtances.

CHANCERY. In this ſupreme court, the Governor, or, in his abſence, the Lieutenant, preſides; and he is aſſiſted by the Deemſters, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Attorney-General, and the Admiral or Water-Bailiff, who all, ſince the reveſting act, hold their ſituations during the pleaſure of His Majeſty.

COURT OF GAOL DELIVERY. This is a court of peculiar dignity and ſplendour: the Governor, the Biſhop, his Archdeacon and Vicars-general, the Deemſters, the Clerk of the Rolls, the Water-Bailiff, and Attorney-General, together with the twenty-four Keys, all preſiding for the purpoſe of trying capital offences; thoſe of a ſubordinate nature being heard and determined before the magiſtrates. The bills are found by a grand jury, and tried by a petty jury, as in England; but with this difference, that an Engliſh grand jury is reſtricted to the hearing of evidence on behalf of the proſecution only; but, in the Iſle of Man, depoſitions are alſo taken on the part of the priſoner in his preſence. If the bill is not found, he is immediately diſcharged: if found, he is tried before the general court, where the verdict of the firſt jury is produced, and previous to the trial, the priſoner may challenge fifty-four of the jury of General Gaol Delivery; the conſtitution requiring that four good men ſhould be ſummoned out of every pariſh in the iſland, amounting in number to ſixty-eight. A jury of twelve being impanelled, they are ſworn and charged by the Deemſter; the priſoner is arraigned on the indictment by the Clerk of the Rolls, and the proſecution is conducted by the Attorney-General. Counſel are allowed to plead for the priſoner, croſs-examine the witneſſes for the Crown, and reply to the Attorney-General.

When the pleadings are concluded, and the jury are agreed on their verdict, a very ancient and remarkable ceremony enſues. The Deemſter demands of the foreman, in the Manx language, *Vod fir charree ſoie?* "May he that miniſters at the altar continue to ſit?" If the foreman anſwers that he may not, it is underſtood to be the precurſor to the verdict of guilty, and the Biſhop and his clergy immediately retire; but ſhould the anſwer be in the affirmative, the verdict of not guilty is returned, and the priſoner is immediately diſcharged.

After trial and conviction (benefit of clergy being here unknown) the ſenior Deemſter pronounces ſentence of death, which conſiſts of being hanged by the neck till dead; no other puniſhment for capital offences being uſed, except that for treaſon; but the execution muſt be delayed till the pleaſure of His Majeſty is known. For treaſon the ſentence was "forfeiture of lands and goods; drawing with horſes; then being hanged and quartered, the head ſtricken off, and, with one quarter,

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ſet upon the Caſtle tower over the burn, another quarter at Halland, now called Peel, the third at Ramſey, and the fourth at Douglas." For offences leſs than capital, by an ordinance of Sir John Stanley, made in 1422, "the priſoner muſt forfeit his goods, and then might have his choice of three things; firſt, to reſt in priſon a-year and a-day with bread, two parts meal and the third aſhes, and drink of the water next the priſon-door; ſecond, to forſwear the King and all his land; or elſe, for the third, to pay the King three pounds." On capital convictions, by an ordinance in 1504, "all felons' goods, as horſes, mares, oxen, and kine above two years old, belong to the Lord, and thoſe that are two years and under to the Coroner."

COURT OF COMMON LAW. In this court are tried all actions which are commonly brought before courts of the ſame deſcription in England, and the aſſeſſment of damages is referred to a jury, under the direction of the Deemſter. Evidence is given *ore tenus*, and if required, is taken down in writing, and afterwards read to and ſigned by the witneſſes in open court. In caſe of an appeal from the verdict of the jury to the twenty-four Keys, theſe depoſitions are read to and commented upon by the reſpective advocates, and are received by the Houſe as ſufficient, and therefore preclude the neceſſity of examining the witneſſes *viva voce* again. The Keys, on ſuch an appeal, which may be entered by either party, claim the extraordinary right not only of reviſing matters of form, or deciding on errors apparent on the face of the proceedings, but of leſſening or increaſing, at their pleaſure, the amount of the verdict.

EXCHEQUER. In this court, the Governor is empowered to make ſuch orders and rules, from time to time, for the better regulating the practice and proceedings, as occaſion ſhall require. Its authority extends over revenue and tithe cauſes.

THE DEEMSTERS' COURT. Owing to the longitudinal formation of the iſland, the Deemſters were always two in number; and their ſituation, for the more convenient adminiſtration of juſtice, is at the north and ſouth diſtricts; where all matters of litigation that can ariſe, either by treſpaſſes, ſlanders, aſſaults, batteries, debts, contracts, or dealings, are weekly, or oftener, heard and determined without the intervention of a jury; but from their judgment an appeal lies to the Governor in council. In order to ſecure correctneſs in his adminiſtration, the Deemſter is ſworn to execute the laws of the iſle juſtly, "between the King and the ſubject, and between party and party, as indifferently as the herring's back-bone doth lie in the midſt of the fiſh." It has been an ancient cuſtom in the iſland, that if a perſon finds his adverſary preſent, while the court is ſitting, he may take him by the arm, and bring him before

before the Deemſter, and ſet his foot on his adverſary's foot, and inſtantly plead his cauſe againſt the defendant; but this mode of proceeding has fallen into diſuſe.

HIGH BAILIFFS. This officer is appointed by the Governor during pleaſure, for the four towns of Caſtletown, Douglas, Peel, and Ramſey; he is conſervator of the peace, and ſuperintendant of the police, and has juriſdiction in all matters of debt under forty ſhillings. He is alſo empowered to take the acknowledgement of parties, or teſtimony of witneſſes, for the probate of all deeds or inſtruments brought before him.

COURT OF THE WATER BAILIFF OR ADMIRALTY. By the conſtitution of the iſland, the office of admiral, or water-bailiff, was always held of high importance, and, from time immemorial, he was one of the King's or Governor's council. As ſole judge of the Admiralty Court, which is uſually held every Saturday, he has cognizance of all pleas of the crown reſpecting maritime concerns, and offences committed on the ſeas within the diſtance of three leagues from the ſhore of the iſland. And, according to the ancient ſtatutes, he has ſuperintendance over all matters relative to the herring fiſhery. In all civil ſuits an appeal lies from his determination to the governor. Should the cauſe require a jury, the water-bailiff iſſues a warrant to the coroner, requiring him to ſummon four perſons out of his ſheading, who muſt attend at the time appointed, to hear the evidence, and give their unanimous verdict, on which a decree is pronounced by the judge; in caſes of a criminal nature, a jury of ſix men muſt be ſummoned by the coroner, whoſe verdict muſt be unanimous.

THE CORONER. The Coroners poſſeſs authorities analogous to thoſe both of ſheriffs and coroners in England. Over each of the ſix ſheadings, or great diviſions of the iſland, the governor appoints one coroner, who is not only a miniſterial officer, but a conſervator of the peace throughout his diſtrict, with power to raiſe the country for its civil defence and the ſuppreſſion of riots; and by virtue of ſeveral old ordinances and ſtatutes, he is to continue in office no longer than one year.

The Coroner has power of taking inqueſts, to find out the cauſe of ſudden or violent deaths, *ſuper viſum corporis*. He is bound to ſummon juries, to execute proceſs iſſuing from the Governor, the Judges, or courts of juſtice; and he has authority to ſell, after the legal forms are gone through, ſuch effects as he has arreſted or diſtrained in the firſt inſtance. In criminal matters, or for breach of the peace, he may arreſt by virtue of his office, and without a warrant; and the party breaking the peace, or who ſtrikes or obſtructs the coroner in the execution of his office, beſides incurring impriſonment,

forfeits three pounds to the Lord. Like the Engliſh ſheriff, he muſt execute the ſentence of the Judge, though it ſhould extend to death. It is alſo the Coroner's duty to aſſiſt in the ſalvage and ſale of wrecks belonging to the Crown or the Lord. In order that the Coroner may be enabled to execute theſe various duties, he has under him a deputy in each pariſh, called a *Lockman*. There is alſo in each pariſh in the iſland an ancient officer called a *Moar*, who collects the rents and fines due to the Lord, and alſo the eſcheats, deodands, waifs, and eſtrays, for the Lord's uſe. The Moar alſo executes the precepts of the baron court. By the ſtatute of 1442, four-pence ſhall be paid yearly out of every quarter-land to the Coroner, and two-pence for cottages and intacks of above three ſhillings and four-pence rent. The Coroner, beſide the horſes, mares, oxen, and kine, of two years old and under, the property of felons, is entitled to their ſheep of one year old and under, as well as to their broken ſtack of oats; and alſo to the corbs appertaining to an heir convicted of felony; and he is alſo entitled to the broken ſtack of corn, and beaſts of three years old and under, the property of a *felo de ſe*.

Ecclesiastical Court. The Eccleſiaſtical Court, under the preſidency of the Biſhop, has a juriſdiction ſimilar to that of courts of the ſame denomination in England, and as in thoſe, proceeds according to the divine law and the holy canons of the church. The *Archdeacon* is the ſecond ſpiritual magiſtrate in the iſland, and he has, in all inferior caſes, alternate juriſdiction with the Biſhop. The Archdeacon enjoys many privileges, both temporal and ſpiritual, and he holds his courts either in perſon or by his official, as the biſhop does by his vicars-general; but the uſual appeal, in matters purely eccleſiaſtical, lies from all theſe courts to the metropolitan, the Archbiſhop of York.

The Attorney-General. The Attorney-General is appointed by the Crown, and the nature and duties of his office are compriſed and explained in his oath. He ſwears that he will faithfully, juſtly, and truly, without favour or affection, dread or fear, envy or malice, and without reſpect to love or gain, kindred or friendſhip, conſanguinity or affinity, plead and defend the cauſes of the King, as by law required. That he will alſo, when required by the Governor, or in his abſence, by the Lieutenant-governor, plead and defend the cauſe of all widows, orphans, and fatherleſs children, and be aiding and aſſiſting, with his beſt advice and counſel, the Governor or his Lieutenant, for the furtherance of the government and benefit of the iſle.

Trade.

The Herring Fishery. The principal trade of the Iſle of Man is founded on the taking and curing of the herring. The number of herrings annually cured in the iſland is ſubject to conſiderable variation, but is calculated at an average of between eight and ten millions. A barrel contains about ſix hundred. Formerly premiums were given to the owners of ſucceſsful boats, and certain bounties upon all that were exported to foreign lands; but both are diſcontinued.

Exports. The chief exports, beſide herrings, are ſtrong linens and ſail-cloth, but in no large quantities, there being but one factory for making theſe articles, and that on a ſmall ſcale. Conſiderable ſupplies of grain have of late years been ſent to Liverpool, with butter, eggs, fowls, bacon, and ſome other trifling matters. There is a manufactory of woollens, but theſe are eagerly bought up for home conſumption.

Bank. The want of a ſufficient currency has induced many perſons in trade to iſſue notes and cards, in value from one guinea to half-a-crown, but the only regular bank eſtabliſhed in the iſland is at Caſtletown, and the notes and cards of this, from its known ſtability, obtain a natural and decided preference.

Imports. The imports are all kinds of manufactured goods, chiefly from Liverpool; coal from thence, and from the ports in Cumberland: wine from Oporto and Guernſey, from whence alſo they get brandy and Geneva: rum muſt paſs through an Engliſh or Scotch port. Since the year 1765, the contraband trade has been nearly annihilated; the little that is now done is ſuppoſed to be by coaſting veſſels.

Manufactories. The manufactories for internal conſumption, beſide that already mentioned for woollen cloths, are breweries, ſoap and candle manufactories, and tanneries. There are few ſhops, and not many houſes occupied by the lower orders, where ſpirits are not ſold, either in large or ſmall quantities. Moſt of the ſmall farmers and cottagers ſtill ſpin their own wool and flax, and get them made into cloth by village weavers, there being generally one or two looms in every pariſh; theſe practices are favourable to economy, and encourage domeſtic induſtry, whilſt they preſerve the ſimplicity of the peaſants.

Revenues. At the time of the reveſtment, the cuſtom-houſe duties given up to government by the Duke of Athol were eſtimated at 6,547*l.* per annum. In 1790, the duties were only 3,006*l.*, while the expenditure was 3,272*l.* Such meaſures

meaſures were then taken, that in 1792 the groſs amount of duties was raiſed to 12,000*l.*, and equal care and vigilance have been exerciſed ſince that period.

The revenue retained by the Lord ariſes from a rental on all lands, amounting to 1,400*l.* Manx currency, from manorial rights and fines, a few fees, and the prerogatives already enumerated.

JERSEY.

SITUATION. Jerſey, at its N.W. point, is ſituated in north latitude 49° 16′, and in 2° 22′ longitude weſt of London. It forms the moſt ſouthern iſland of that groupe, which lies in St. Michael's Bay, on the coaſt of Lower Normandy and Britanny. That ample gulf ſweeps from *Cap de la Hogue*, in the former province, to *Cap de Frehelle*, in the latter. The diſtance from Jerſey to Carteret, or to Port Bail, which are the two neareſt French ports, is only from five to ſix leagues; to Guernſey, about ſeven; to Alderney, about ten; to Weymouth, about twenty-five; to the Iſle of Wight, about thirty; and to Southampton, about forty leagues. The form of this iſland is that of an irregular parallelogram. Its greateſt length from S.E. to N.W. is about twelve miles; and the average breadth may be eſtimated at full five miles, but does not in any part exceed ſeven. By a very accurate meaſurement, it contains a ſuperficies of between thirty-nine and forty thouſand acres.

NAME. This iſland was known to the ancients under various appellations; its preſent name is derived from Cæſarea; ſome ſuppoſe that it was called *Augia* before it had the latter denomination.

APPEARANCE. Jerſey exhibits an inclined plane; part of its eaſtern coaſt, commencing at *Mont Orgueil*, and the whole of its northern ſhore, form one continuous range of rocks, riſing abruptly from the ocean, frequently to an elevation of from forty to fifty fathoms. This natural defence renders the iſland, in thoſe quarters, nearly inacceſſible. The rocks in their exterior are, in general, mere naked ridges, projecting their ſharp angles into the ſea; thus adding to the rapidity of the currents, and varying their courſes. From theſe rugged cliffs the land declines toward the ſouthern coaſt, which, in ſeveral places, is nearly on a level with the ſea. From the wedge-like form of Jerſey, it muſt be evident, that little table-land exiſts in the iſland; nor is the ſurface a widely extended declivity: it is moſtly compoſed of elevated parts, running from north to ſouth,

ſouth, interſected by deep, and in general by narrow vales. The ſides, or *coteaux*, of theſe eminences are frequently ſteep and craggy: they follow the inclined courſe of the iſland; ſo likewiſe do the numerous rivulets of excellent water that gurgle along the valleys: theſe receive the tributary ſtreamlets that iſſue from ſo infinite a variety of ſources, that perhaps no ſpot in the univerſe is more amply and beneficially refreſhed. The rocks which environ the iſland form a chain of natural defence. There are beſide, many detached maſſes both above and below the ſurface, in different parts of the ſurrounding ocean, which conſtitute a formidable barrier, and by obſtructing the natural courſe of the tides, produce a multitude of ſtrong and diverſified currents, which contribute a prodigious acceſſion of ſtrength to the other natural outworks.

Tides. There is ſomething very extraordinary in the tides that flow and ebb among theſe iſlands. The directions they follow ſeem totally uninfluenced by others in the Channel. They receive indeed their *momentum* at its mouth, but take different impulſes, from the various obſtructions that divert the regularity of their courſe. They flow E. S. E. to the Bay of *Mont St. Michel*. The declivity of the ſhore, in this gulf, is ſo inconſiderable, that the common extent of the tide is from twelve to ſixteen miles; and the bay is filled in the ſhort ſpace of two hours. When this is effected, a new direction takes place. The ſaturated inlet reſiſts a greater acceſſion, and the water is impelled along the Norman coaſt, northwards, until, in the courſe of twelve hours, it has encircled the iſlands, and returned to the ſpot from whence it began to flow. The currents, from being frequently interſected, ſucceed each other in ſo rapid a manner that they are in continual motion: there is no appearance of ſtill water in theſe parts, as in the Channel, at low ebb.

Climate. The winter in Jerſey is much milder than in any part of England; ſo much, that the tendereſt plants are expoſed without ſhelter and with little injury, and in moderately favourable ſituations ſpring-flowers bloom, in the months when the inhabitant of England never expects to ſee them. Conſiderable heat is felt in ſummer; but, on the whole, the climate may be conſidered as mild, and the air as very ſalubrious.

Divisions. The iſland is divided into twelve pariſhes; theſe are, *Trinity*, *St. John's*, and *St. Mary's*, on the north; *St. Owen's*, *St. Peter's*, and *St. Brelade's* (or *Breverlade's*), on the weſt; *St. Lawrence's*, *St. Helier's*, and *St. Saviour's*, on the ſouth; *St. Clement's*, *Grouville*, and *St. Martin's*, on the eaſt. Theſe, with the exception of the pariſh of St. Owen, are again divided into *Vintaines*, or double tithings. The diviſions in that

that parish are called *Cuillettes*. All border, more or less, on the sea, except *St. Saviour's*, and even this has one point of contact. Each parish has an ancient church, the first that of St. Brelade, having been consecrated in 1111; the most recent that of St. Hilier, in 1341.

Produce. Jersey produces the grain useful for the food of man, and many luxuries of the garden, particularly the strawberry and the Chaummantel pear, in the highest perfection. Its principal animals are the cows commonly called Alderney cows, rabbits, and the red-legged partridge, but the breed of this beautiful bird is on the decline.

Religion. The people of Jersey in the most ancient times followed the system of the Druids. Their conversion to Christianity was the consequence of a persecution in England, which obliged great numbers, both of laity and clergy, to seek a retreat from the Saxon invaders. Among the most conspicuous for sanctity of life and eminence of character, was St. Samson, who had become a metropolitan in Britain. The see of *Dol*, in Armorica, was conferred on him, but being unequal to its new dignity, considerable accessions were made to it by the religious zeal of different princes. Jersey, Guernsey, and the adjacent islands were at that time subject to France, and Childebert, son of Clovis, presented them to Saint Samson, about the year 550, for an augmentation to his small diocese. The number of beneficed clergy, or incumbents, including the dean, is just equal to that of the parishes, the canons of Jersey absolutely forbidding pluralities. The dean is always one of the rectors.

Spiritual Court. Here is a regular Spiritual Court, of which the dean is the head: the other eleven rectors are his assessors. This court has attached to it a greffier, or register, two advocates, or proctors, with an apparitor to execute its summonses. Two or three ministers, with the dean or vice-dean, are sufficient to form a court. Appeals may be made from this tribunal to the Bishop of Winchester, as superior ordinary; or, in case of a vacancy in that see, to the Archbishop of Canterbury; such appeals must be heard by the prelate in person.

Tithes. The rectors are entitled to the small, and in some instances, to a part of the great tithes; the remainder of these belongs principally to the Crown, and forms a part of the Governor's salary. Thus, instead of being rectories, the livings may with more propriety be denominated vicarages. This abridgement of the spiritual revenues has been the subject of constant complaint, and it has frequently prevented gentlemen from bringing up their sons to the clerical profession.

Clergy.

Clergy. At the commencement of the Reformation, the youths of Jerſey, deſigned for the miniſtry, were ſent to ſtudy among the Proteſtants in France, and eſpecially at Saumur: but Archbiſhop Laud obtained from Charles I. a grant of ſome houſes and lands, for the endowment of three fellowſhips in Oxford, for the iſlands of Jerſey and Guernſey alternately. They are in the colleges of Exeter, Jeſus, and Pembroke. To theſe fellowſhips there have ſince been added five exhibitions or ſcholarſhips, in Pembroke College, each of 12*l.* per annum: three for Jerſey, and two for Guernſey. They were founded by Morley, Biſhop of Wincheſter. Some years before theſe foundations, a Jerſey man, named Laurens Baudains, gave thirty-two quarters of wheat for the ſame laudable purpoſes.

Two regular church-ſervices are appointed for every Sunday: one of theſe is in moſt of the pariſhes performed in the Engliſh language. At St. Helier's there is, in addition, an evening ſervice. Every pariſh has a fund, ſupported by legacies, for keeping the church and the parſonage-houſe in repair.

Schools. There are, in Jerſey, two free grammar-ſchools, each for the children of ſix pariſhes; one in St. Saviour's pariſh, called (by corruption of St. Magloire) St. Manlier's; the other in the pariſh of St. Peter, called St. Athanaſius's. They were founded in 1498. Two public ſchools for the inſtruction of poor children of both ſexes, have been eſtabliſhed by voluntary ſubſcriptions; and there is an auxiliary Bible Society.

History. This iſland appears firſt to have been poſſeſſed by the Celts; after them, probably about the time of Julius Cæſar, came the Romans; the Franks became its ſovereigns, ſometime in the fifth or ſixth century; after many invaſions, and much deſolation, it was ceded to Rollo, Duke of Normandy in 912, to be holden as a fief of the crown of France. Under William the Conqueror it was annexed to his ſovereignty as King of England and Duke of Normandy; and although all the continental dominions heretofore belonging to England have long ſince been ſevered from the Crown, this iſland, with its two neighbours Guernſey and Sark, have never been alienated. The French have repeatedly endeavoured to regain theſe poſſeſſions; their laſt invaſion in 1781 was made with the greateſt probability of ſucceſs; but a complete ceſſion was more apprehended from the neceſſities of Charles II., before his Reſtoration, than at any other period before or ſince.

Privileges. The attachment of this territory to England, while it is locally within the very graſp of France, could only be ſecured by the conceſſion of great and valuable privileges, and indeed ſuch do the inhabitants poſſeſs as render them a very enviable

enviable portion of the Britiſh ſubjects. A conſtitution granted by King John prevents the removal of ſuits begun before their magiſtrates into any other court; and frees the property of felons from forfeiture. Jerſey enjoys the benefit of being a free port, the reſtrictions in this reſpect being more properly regulations. There were, until the peace in 1815, only a few duties on the imports, but no prohibitions. The iſland is alſo protected from the impreſs act. Formerly there were not any taxes; unleſs we conſider as ſuch the parochial rates for the indigent, and for the highways: theſe have of late been raiſed; but they are ſtill very moderate, when compared with ſimilar aſſeſſments in England. The only reſtraint on the foreign commerce of Jerſey relates to the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands, with which there is no direct intercourſe. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are for ever exempted from all taxes, impoſts, and cuſtoms, in the towns, markets, and ports of England, that are not levied on other ſubjects. They elect all their own magiſtrates, with the exception of the bailiff, his deputy, and a few other officers. No act of the Britiſh parliament will extend to Jerſey, unleſs it be ſpecifically named in the act, and its proviſions applied to the iſland; and even ſuch an act cannot operate, unleſs accompanied with an order of council: but even parliament does not levy any tax. This exemption is not ſo properly a grant or privilege, as a natural and neceſſary conſequence of theſe iſlands being a peculiar of the Engliſh crown: for, as Coke ſays, "though they are *parcel of the dominion of the crown of England*, yet they are not, nor ever were, *parcel of the realm of England*."

COMMERCE. The trade of Jerſey, in itſelf, is not conſiderable. She receives from England, corn, flour, live and dead ſtock, fiſh, ſeeds, cloth, linen, and, generally ſpeaking, nearly all things neceſſary for ſubſiſtence, clothing and furniture; together with coals, crockery, glaſs-ware, paving ſtone, and a great variety of other uſeful and ornamental articles.

In return for theſe, Jerſey ſends to England, cyder, cows, knit worſted ſtockings, fruit, and in ſome years, potatoes. The quantity of cyder exported annually to the mother-country may be averaged at about 900 pipes, and the number of horned-cattle at nearly 800. The produce of the iſland exported to foreign parts is very inconſiderable, with the exception, during the latter period of the war, of potatoes to Spain and Portugal; while the articles imported from abroad, and actually conſumed in the iſland, form a large aggregate amount. The advantages of ſituation, however, and the privileges before adverted to, render commerce, in time of war, a very advantageous purſuit.

MANUFACTURES. There are two manufactories for cyder, beſides large quantities made by the growers. There are alſo rope-makers, brewers, brick-makers, lime-burners, tanners, ſoap-boilers, candle-makers, and diſtillers, that have regular eſtabliſhments, and worſted ſtockings are ſpun and knit in private houſes.

REVENUE AND MONEY. The revenue is computed at 110,000 livres French currency, derived from inconſiderable impoſts on wines, aided by occaſional lotteries. The coin current in Jerſey was, until lately, chiefly that of France, with a ſmall proportion of Spaniſh money. The uſual amount of ſpecie, in circulation, has been eſtimated at nearly 80,000*l.* ſterling. After the French Revolution, the coin of England came more generally into uſe, until the increaſed value of gold and ſilver completely drained the iſland of all ſpecie but copper, and even that became ſcarce. There were, at this period, three regular banking-houſes in the town of St. Helier. Theſe, and a few mercantile men, were accuſtomed to iſſue notes, payable to the bearer on demand, for twenty-four livres French currency, or one pound ſterling. So great, however, and ſo increaſing were the inconveniences occaſioned by the almoſt total diſappearance of ſilver, that thoſe houſes were obliged to iſſue notes of five and ten ſhillings: this induced individuals to do the ſame; all having "Jerſey Bank" on their notes; until there were about eighty of theſe *ſoi diſant* bankers. The iſland was ſoon inundated with notes, from the value of one pound down to that of one ſhilling; many of them iſſued by the loweſt deſcription of traders and publicans. Alarming as this undoubtedly was, neceſſity gave to theſe notes a general and ready circulation. Seriouſly aware of the ultimate conſequences likely to reſult from this unreſtrained emiſſion of paper-money, the States reſolved to have a ſilver coin ſtruck: accordingly tokens were iſſued, bearing the value of three ſhillings, and of eighteen-pence Engliſh, to the amount of 10,000*l.* ſterling. The iſſuing of notes, under the ſum of one pound ſterling, was then forbidden; yet ſuch apprehenſions reſpecting the notes ſtill in circulation were excited among the country inhabitants, that thoſe who attended the market, hoarded all the coin and tokens they could procure: this was at leaſt the reaſon aſſigned and generally believed, for the diſappearance, in a few months, of nearly all the new coined ſilver. Although French currency is the general ſtandard by which mercantile concerns are regulated, yet there is another ſtill cuſtomary at the court of juſtice, in eſtimating fines, damages, &c., and which has been uſed even in other tranſ-

actions. This is called *order money*, and is valued at one half more than current money.

POPULATION. In 1814, the population of Jerſey was returned at 22,855 perſons; but the peace in 1815 cauſing a relaxation of public works, many individuals who had been employed by government quitted the iſland.

LANGUAGE. The vernacular language is French. Divine ſervice, and preaching, the pleadings in court, and the public acts, are all in good French; though, in legal documents, ſome obſolete forenſic terms are ſtill retained. The upper ranks underſtand and occaſionally ſpeak it; but, in compliance with cuſtom, and to avoid the appearance of an affected ſuperiority over the lower claſſes, they too frequently converſe in the provincial tongue, or, as it is called, *Jerſey French*, a heterogeneous compound of antiquated French, intermixed with modern expreſſions and galliciſed Engliſh words. Engliſh is, however, becoming daily more and more prevalent; the neceſſity of comprehending the ſoldiery has made it underſtood, even by the loweſt orders of people: it would indeed be ſoon generally ſpoken, inſtead of the preſent jargon, were it particularly encouraged.

THE GOVERNOR. The principal officer in Jerſey, he who more immediately repreſents the ſovereign, whoſe power is the leaſt ſubject to control, and who claims the precedency of all others, is the governor. To ſupport the dignity of this appointment, the King allows the holder of it his whole revenue in the iſland, deducting ſome fees and ſalaries. This revenue aroſe formerly from ſeven manors let out in fee-farm; and from various other ſources: at preſent it conſiſts principally of the corn tithes of ten pariſhes. The tithes of St. Saviour are annexed to the deanery; thoſe of St. Helier were granted by James II. to Sir Edward Carteret. The governor appoints a peculiar officer, ſtyled *Le Receveur du Roy*, who receives theſe rents and revenues. There are now two receivers.

The power of the governors has varied, as their reſpective commiſſions have, at different times, been either enlarged or reſtrained. Anciently the governor had a mixed power. He had the adminiſtration of both the civil and military authority. He was judge as well as governor; and had the diſpoſal of all places in court, church, and garriſon. He is now reduced to almoſt a mere military commander; has the cuſtody of the fortreſſes; the regular troops are under his control; and ſo, in a great meaſure, is the iſland militia.

In ancient times there was not any *lieutenant-governor* of the King's own appointment, and in the pay of the crown. That

office ſeems to have been created to ſupply the now cuſtomary non-reſidence of the governor himſelf.

COURT OF JUDICATURE. The Jerſey Court of Judicature conſiſts of the bailiff and twelve jurats. The former is appointed by the King, and repreſents His Majeſty in court: there, as a ſtanding memorial of his independence, his ſeat is raiſed above that of the governor. The *jurats*, who are his aſſeſſors, muſt be Proteſtants of the Church of England. Their office was inſtituted by King John, and they are elected by the people.

The province of the jurats is not only to decide private controverſies, but alſo to enforce a general obedience to the laws. They are choſen for life, unleſs diſmiſſed by the ſovereign, or diſcharged by him on petition. The bailiff is the mouth, or organ of the court. He preſides in all the debates, ſums up the opinions, and pronounces the ſentence or deciſion; yet he has not any deliberative voice himſelf, unleſs upon an equal diviſion of opinions among the jurats; in this caſe he has a caſting vote: he is otherwiſe bound by the majority, and muſt pronounce accordingly. He is the keeper of the public ſeal, which, however, he cannot uſe without the joint concurrence of three jurats. The duties of his office require a thorough knowledge of the laws, and an almoſt conſtant attendance; it is therefore a laborious poſt.

OFFICERS. The Court has, for miniſterial officers, *Le Procureur du Roi*, or attorney-general; *Le Vicomte*, or high ſheriff; *L'Avocat du Roi*, or ſolicitor-general; *Le Greffier*, or clerk, who has the cuſtody of the rolls and records; ſix pleaders, or ſolicitors at the bar, ſtyled *Avocats du Barreau*; two under ſheriffs, called *Denonciateurs*, becauſe they publiſh the injunctions of the court; and, *Le Huiſſier*, or uſher, whoſe office is that of preſerving order. To conſtitute a court there need be preſent only the bailiff and two jurats, the *Procureur du Roi*, or the *Avocat du Roi*, the *Viconte*, or his deputy, or one of the *Denonciateurs* and the *Greffier*. To theſe official characters may be added, though not a member of the court, *L'Enregiſtreur*, or keeper of the regiſter for hereditary contracts. Theſe conveyances of property are paſſed upon oath before the chief magiſtrate and two jurats, and are then delivered to *L'Enregiſtreur*, by whom they are entered: to this regiſter every one may have recourſe, no ſecret or unregiſtered ſale of lands or rents being valid. Of the preceding employments the firſt three are held by patent; the bailiff has the patronage of all the others.

The court has cognizance of all pleas, ſuits, and actions, whether real, perſonal, mixed, or criminal, ariſing within the iſland;

iſland; treaſon alone excepted. Some other matters are likewiſe reſerved for the King in council, to whom alone this tribunal is immediately ſubordinate. The courts of Weſtminſter have not any authority in this iſland; it was not ſubject to them even before the reign of King John. The governor held the pleas, and, in extraordinary caſes, reſort was had to Normandy, but never to England.

The laws of Jerſey may be compriſed under two heads:

1. The ancient cuſtom of Normandy; together with municipal and local uſages. Theſe may be compared to the common law of England.

2. Conſtitutions and ordinances made by different ſovereigns; acts paſſed by the States, and confirmed by His Majeſty; together with ſuch rules and orders as have been from time to time tranſmitted from the council board.

A code of laws was, in 1771, compiled by the States and ſanctioned by His Majeſty. Though there is but one tribunal, and in that the judges are always the ſame perſons, yet, on account of the great variety and diverſity of cauſes, ſome requiring one method of proceeding, ſome another, the court is under the neceſſity of aſſuming four diſtinct characters or denominations; and as it acts reſpectively under them, is called either *La Cour d'Heritage*, *La Cour de Catel*, *La Cour du Billet*, or *La Cour Extraordinaire* or *du Samedi*.

La Cour d'Heritage admits of none but hereditary matters, as partitions of eſtate, differences about bounds, intruſions, or treſpaſſes. *La Cour de Catel* is principally for rents and decrees. *La Cour du Billet* is an extraordinary court, chiefly for arrears of rents, and for ſmall debts. *La Cour du Samedi* is another ſubſidiary court, in which all perſonal matters are arranged.

Police. For the purpoſes of police, the principal officer in each pariſh is the conſtable, under him are two *centeniers*, or hundredors, and an indefinite number of *vinteniers*, and of other inhabitants called *officiers du connetable*; and there are two *Procureurs du bien public*, whoſe office is to conduct any parochial law-ſuits.

Criminal Law. The *Procureur du Roi* is the proſecutor in all matters of this nature. Contrary to the Engliſh mode, every accuſation is firſt examined by a petty jury, termed *la petite enquete*, which is compoſed of the parochial conſtable, and twelve of his officers. To find a priſoner guilty, ſeven of theſe muſt concur in opinion. Should the party accuſed diſapprove the verdict, he may appeal to a grand jury, called *la grande enquete*, compoſed of twenty-four perſons, taken from the three neighbouring pariſhes. Though twenty-four is the number which forms *la grande enquete*, more are ſummoned;

and the perſon accuſed may, on ſubſtantial grounds, object to any of them; a peremptory challenge is not admitted. Five out of the twenty-four are ſufficient to acquit a priſoner. If the ſuppoſed culprit cannot afford to employ counſel, the court will direct one of the advocates to plead for him. A priſoner is not, as in the Engliſh criminal courts, found guilty or acquitted: the verdict of the jury is either *plutot coupable qu'innocent*, or *plutot innocent que coupable*. When ſentence of death is pronounced, the bailiff, or his lieutenant, and the jurats, all of whom were before uncovered, put on their hats; and the criminal kneels to receive his doom. The victim of the law is obliged to walk, from his priſon to the place of execution, up a very ſteep hill. Executions are far from being common in Jerſey, and this laſt ſtage of legal ſeverity is generally commuted.

Assembly of the States. This aſſembly, as a general council of the iſland, in ſome reſpects reſembles a Britiſh parliament. It is compoſed of the twelve jurats, repreſenting the inhabitants of the firſt claſs; of the dean, and the other eleven rectors, repreſenting the clergy; and of the twelve conſtables, as the repreſentatives of their ſeveral pariſhes. The King's procurator, the viſcount or ſheriff, and the King's Advocate, though they repreſent no eſtate, are alſo admitted, *ex officio*; but they do not vote. The *greffier* of the royal court is likewiſe, by his office, clerk of the States. The aſſembly of the States is convened by the bailiff, or his lieutenant, who is the perpetual preſident. The Governor has, in their meetings, a negative voice. No aſſembly of the States can be held without at leaſt ſeven of each corps being preſent, except on very urgent occaſions. Foreigners preferred to benefices are, unleſs naturalized, excluded. The jurats and the conſtables are elected by thoſe inhabitants who are maſters of families, and who contribute to the inſular rates, or aſſeſſments. The dean is appointed by the ſovereign, who granted the patronage of the rectories to the governor. The principal buſineſs is to raiſe money for the public ſervice. This aſſembly has alſo the power of naturalizing foreigners.

St. Helier's. The town of St. Helier's is the ſeat of the government and of juſtice: the centre of buſineſs, of faſhion, and of amuſement. It has, in the courſe of only a few years, made a rapid progreſs in improvement; and contains between one-fourth and one-third of the whole population of Jerſey. Not many years ſince, the town was compoſed chiefly of two ſtreets, running in nearly parallel lines: the weſtern entrance was under an old, confined, and ill-contrived priſon; this has been taken down, and a new ſpacious edifice, for the ſame purpoſe,

purpoſe, is juſt finiſhed, in an airy ſituation. The principal avenue of the town is a broad ſtreet, which, contracted at firſt, widens as it proceeds toward the ſquare or old market-place. The ſquare forms a general centre; there are leading into it four carriage-ways, and one foot-way; ſeveral new ſtreets have been projected in different quarters. Anciently all the houſes were ſubſtantial ſtone edifices with ſmall windows; they were conſequently gloomy, and moſt of them were thatched. Now the walls of many are of brick, and even thoſe of former date are in general modernized. The pavement was likewiſe very uneven; whereas, at preſent, almoſt every ſtreet has a regular carriage-road, paved with a hard granite, brought from Guernſey, with as broad a flat foot-path on each ſide as the width will admit. The ſquare is ornamented with a gilt pedeſtrian ſtatue of George II. in a Roman military coſtume, elevated on a ſtone pedeſtal, and ſurrounded with a neat iron railing.

On one ſide of this ſquare is *La Cchue*, or court-houſe, a ſolid but plain ſtructure, in which is held the aſſembly of ſtates, together with the courts of civil and criminal juriſdiction. Government-houſe has a partial view of the ſquare, and has offices appropriated to public buſineſs.

The expoſed ſituation of thoſe who came from the country, to vend their ſeveral commodities in the old market-place, induced the inhabitants to erect, on a more eligible ſpot, a ſingularly neat and convenient ſet of covered ſheds, with broad open ſpaces at intervals. The ſeveral trades are amply accommodated in ſeparate places, and a plot of ground in the vicinity has been walled in for a cattle-market. There was, in former times, a corn-market, but it no longer exiſts, as the town is now principally ſupplied with flour from England, and the country inhabitants conſume the greater part of their own produce.

A ſtream of water from the north, ſwelled by various tributary rivulets, is, on approaching St. Helier's, ſeparated into different channels, and thus paſſes through various parts of the town. Many houſes are furniſhed with wells; but in parts of the town lying in a low ſituation, and on the ſea ſhore, the water is not pure; there are, however, ſome ſprings of an excellent quality.

THE CHURCH. The church of St. Helier, conſecrated in 1344, partook of the crucial form ſo common to the Saxon and early Norman churches. It compriſes two parallel aiſles of equal length, with communicating arches, together with a veſtibule, as an addition, at the eaſtern end. In the centre of the northern and original aiſle is a chapel, which conſtituted

one extremity of the tranſverſe part; that which fronted it is now included in the ſouthern aiſle. Over the centre of the northern aiſle riſes a tower, of no great height, faced with ſquared maſonry, and ſurmounted with a parapet. The interior exhibits, in every part, the ſame pointed arch that is found in all the Jerſey churches, and the arches of communication are ſuſtained by the ſame kind of maſſive columns, though better proportioned than in ſome of the other churches. There are ſeveral monuments, and among others the moſt diſtinguiſhed is one in commemoration of the brave Major Pierſon, who fell in repelling the French invaſion in 1781.

Chapels. Beſide the parochial church, there is a chapel for the Weſleyan Methodiſts, and another for the profeſſors of Calviniſm; theſe are neat and ſpacious buildings, both recently erected. The Catholics have the privilege of openly celebrating the rites of their perſuaſion; though hitherto, from pecuniary reſtrictions, they have not raiſed a permanent place of worſhip, but perform their devotions in a hired room.

Hospital. At the weſtern extremity of the town is the public hoſpital and poor-houſe for the whole iſland. This eſtabliſhment is ſupported by a fund raiſed by legacies, by a rate, and by contributions. It was rebuilt in conſequence of the former one having been deſtroyed in 1783, by the exploſion of a conſiderable depoſit of gunpowder.

Public Places. At the ſkirt of the town is a large empty ſpace called *Les Mielles*. It was an aſſemblage of ſandy hillocks, but General Don cauſed the whole to be levelled, formed into a lawn, and encloſed with a dwarf wall. It is now converted into a parade, and round it runs a gravelled walk, on each ſide of which trees are planted. There is alſo a library founded by the Reverend Philip Falle, the venerable hiſtorian of the iſland; ſeveral ſchools for children of both ſexes, a chamber of commerce, reading rooms, a ſmall theatre, aſſemblies in the winter, two hotels, and ſeveral taverns.

Packets. Three packets are eſtabliſhed between St. Helier's and Weymouth. One of theſe leaves the latter place every Wedneſday and Friday evening, unleſs prevented by contrary winds or boiſterous weather. The paſſage may, on an average, be eſtimated at ſixteen hours, though it has been performed in leſs than ten. There are likewiſe three regular traders between St. Helier's and Southampton: this voyage is made in from ſixteen to twenty-four hours. Two ſcouts, or *guarda coſtas*, are alſo in conſtant employ. Beſides the packets and regular traders, other veſſels occaſionally paſs over, not only from the ports in England already mentioned, but likewiſe to and from *Briſtol*, *Poole*, *Swanage*, *Lyme*, and other places.

The

THE NEW PRISON. The old gaol being inconveniently ſituated, circumſcribed in extent, deficient in accommodation, and much dilapidated, a very handſome ſtone edifice was begun in 1812, and finiſhed in 1815. It is erected on an airy ſpot at the weſtern extremity of St. Helier, and borders on the ſea-ſhore.

ST. AUBIN'S. The town of St. Aubin is the only one in Jerſey, except the capital. It is ſmall, and ſituated under the long and ſcarcely undulating range of cliffs that ſeparates its bay from St. Brelade. It conſiſts principally of one ſtreet, and though not poſſeſſing all the buſtle of St. Helier's, it ſhares ſome portion of the foreign trade. It is well ſheltered from the winds that are moſt prevalent in the iſland, and commands a fine and intereſting view of the bay, on the border of which it is built. St. Aubin's conſtitutes part of St. Brelade's pariſh; but being very diſtant from the church, a neat chapel has been erected by private ſubſcription. That part of the bay on the edge of which this town is placed bears the name of the Great Road. Near the mouth it has always a depth of water for frigates, though, from being expoſed to ſoutherly winds, they ſeldom remain there during the winter: when gales from that quarter ariſe, they occaſion a heavy ſwell. The bay is land-locked on every other ſide; it contains a dangerous ſunk rock, which was little noticed until a frigate, named the Diamond, ſtruck on it, from which event it has been called the Diamond Rock. Near St. Aubin's a fort, mounting fourteen guns, has been erected on a rock, which, though dry at low water, becomes an iſlet as the tide riſes. From the fort a ſtrong pier projects, within which there is, at new and full moon, a depth of thirty feet; but this is merely a tide harbour. It was built between the years 1673 and 1699. That at St. Helier's was begun immediately afterward. The road from St. Aubin's to St. Helier's, over the ſand, when the tide permits, is very pleaſant; a new one has been conſtructed, which is much more elevated, and the proſpects from both are greatly diverſified.

GUERNSEY.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND POPULATION. The iſland of Guernſey is ſituated thirteen miles and a half north-weſt of Jerſey, to the weſtward of all the other iſlands, and at a greater diſtance from the coaſt of Normandy than any of them. It is in circumference about thirty-nine Engliſh miles, meaſuring the creeks, but excluſive of the little iſland of Lihou. The extreme

extreme length is more than nine miles, and the breadth exceeds ſix. It is divided into ten pariſhes, peopled as follows:

	Population about
St. Sampſon's - - -	788
St. Michael in the Vale - -	1,064
St. Philip Torteval - - -	390
St. Saviour - - - -	943
St. Margaret of the Foreſt - -	443
St. Peter of the Wood - - -	1,200
St. Martin - - - -	1,265
Our Lady of Deliverance of the Caſtle, formerly called the Pariſh of the Grand Sarazin, now called the Catel - -	1,500
St. Andrew - - - -	700
St. Peter's Port, or Town Pariſh -	11,000
	19,293
Sailors and ſtrangers, not permanently ſettled in the iſland, calculated to amount, at the leaſt, to - - -	2,000
Together forming a population of about	21,293

NAME. Guernſey is by Antonine, in his Itinerary, called Sarnia, and in ſome copies of that ancient work, *Sernia*. Camden and other antiquaries have given it different names, but they all, by eaſy corruptions, reſolve themſelves into that by which it is now known.

HISTORY. Of the early inhabitants, ſubſequent hiſtory, and eſtabliſhed religion of this iſland, it is unneceſſary to ſpeak, after the account already given of Jerſey.

GOVERNMENT. The office of governor is of great antiquity, and has evidently exiſted ever ſince the Romans were in Gaul. As immediate repreſentatives of the ſovereign, they were ſtyled *Comites* and *Duces* when the iſlands were under the ancient ſovereignty of France; but under the dukes of Normandy and the firſt Engliſh kings, the government of all the iſlands was uſually veſted in one perſon, ſometimes called *Dominus*, at others *Ballivus*, and often *Cuſtos Inſularum*, Lord Bailiff, or Warden of the Iſles. One governor, Henry de Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, in the time of Henry VI., held the government of this iſle, together with the Iſle of Wight and Jerſey, with the title of king. Formerly the civil and military power were both veſted in the governor, and then he had the diſpoſal of all places in the courts of juſtice, church, and garriſon; he was judge as well as governor. In proceſs of time the

the governor transferred the judicial authority to another, who was called *Bailly*, or bailiff; reſerving to himſelf the military government, and retaining the title of governor. But although theſe poſts then became veſted in two perſons, they were in effect not ſeparated, the governor appointing the bailiff, and all the other officers of juſtice, who were merely miniſters of his will, and in their judicial capacities entirely dependent on him. The inconveniences of this ſyſtem were firſt attacked by King John, and removed by Henry VII., who, in Jerſey, rendered the bailiff wholly independent of the governor; a ſalutary regulation, which was followed by Charles II. in this iſland. But although the governor has no proper juriſdiction, yet his preſence is ſometimes required in the civil court of juſtice, for the paſſing of certain acts which concern the King's ſervice, the ſafety and government of the iſland, and the maintenance of the public peace. The court is, in fact, under his immediate protection, and his authority is to be exerted, if neceſſary, in the execution of its judgments. His power likewiſe extends even to the arreſt and impriſonment of any inhabitant ſuſpected of treaſonable practices, but this ſhould be done with the concurrence of two jurats; and formerly no perſon could paſs into or out of the iſland without his knowledge and privity. And with reſpect to the influx of ſtrangers, this cuſtom is ſtill ſtrictly preſerved; every captain or commandant of a veſſel, landing paſſengers in the iſland, is, under ſevere penalties, obliged to make a return of them to the proper officer, and to ſee that ſuch perſons, as ſoon as conveniently may be after their arrival, perſonally attend and give an account of themſelves. A convention of the ſtates cannot be held, nor any matter tranſacted therein, without the governor's conſent; in which aſſembly he has a deliberative voice, but no vote; and before his admiſſion to the government he muſt produce his patent or commiſſion in court, and ſolemnly ſwear to maintain the liberties and privileges of the iſland. The late governors have authority to execute the office by deputy, whom they have been accuſtomed to appoint; but ſince the latter end of the reign of Charles II. ſuch deputies or lieutenant-governors are nominated by patent from the crown, or the King's ſign manual; and if the lieutenant-governor has occaſion to leave the iſland, he appoints the next ſenior military officer in command, to act for him in his abſence. The governor executing the office by a deputy, or lieutenant-governor, takes the oaths before the privy council of England; the patents are then tranſmitted, with an order of council certifying ſuch oath to have been taken, and the commiſſions are then regiſtered among the archives of the royal court. Formerly, by this patent, the

governor

governor had the right of patronage and preſentation to the deanery, and all the rectories and ſchools in the iſland. He had likewiſe the nomination and appointment of the offices of bailiff, procureur, comptroller, greffier, and king's ſerjeant; and, excepting the bailiff, had the power of ſuſpending them for miſconduct: but Charles II. a few years before his death, took to himſelf the diſpoſal of the deanery, and the offices of bailiff, procureur, and comptroller; and they have ever ſince continued in the crown; the others are ſtill veſted in the governor. He has alſo ſeveral high privileges: formerly he was entitled to a certain proportion of proviſions; among others, to ſixty ſheep, to be raiſed by the conſtables in the ſeveral pariſhes, and to be delivered to the receiver upon paying three ſols ſterling per ſheep; a privilege long ſince given up. But he has ſtill, if he thinks right to claim it, the choice and pre-emption of all proviſions in the market, paying after the ſame rate as ſuch articles are paid for by others. Licences for importation and exportation are iſſued by him; he has alſo the care and cuſtody of the caſtles, fortifications, and defences, of which *Caſtle Cornet* was formerly the principal, over which the following officers were appointed.

The *Porter* of the caſtle, who was likewiſe keeper of the priſon. He had fees of priſoners, and out of every ſtranger's veſſel laden with wine, ſalt, or earthenware, beſides a ſalary of about three ſhillings per week. Two *boatmen*, the *gayabe*, or *watchman*, who was to ſtand all day on the dungeon, and when he ſaw any ſhip coming near the iſland was to ſtrike two ſtrokes on a large bell; and when a boat came toward the caſtle, was to ſtrike once, which is ſtill performed by a ſentinel.

Formerly it was the cuſtom to have in Caſtle Cornet fourteen ſoldiers in time of peace, beſides the *lieutenant*, the *marſhal*, the *porter*, the *ſutler*, the *maſter gunner*, the *ſmith*, the *carpenter*, the *boatmen*, and the *watchman*; and in time of war twenty-eight. Theſe ſoldiers were called the Caſtle Retinue, and were bound to repair thither whenever called upon, eſpecially upon any alarm; but for many years paſt this practice has been laid aſide, and the caſtle garriſoned by veteran or regular troops from England.

Lieutenant-Governor. His office is already explained.

Legislation. The Norman legiſlation was veſted in the ſupreme ſtates of the duchy, compoſed of the duke, or, in his abſence, the great ſeneſchal, the juſticiers of the exchequer, the dignified clergy, and all the barons and military tenants. A kind of legiſlative power was alſo exerciſed in the different bailiwicks

bailiwicks of the province, in each of which was held an aſſembly of the ſtates of the diſtrict, compoſed of the bailiff, who preſided, the aſſeſſors, dignified clergy, and military tenants, but whoſe reſolves were not effective as eſtabliſhed laws till ſanctioned by the ſupreme ſtates. The court or bailiwick, then eſtabliſhed in the iſland, conſiſted of a bailiff and four knights or chevaliers, two of whom were reſident, and the other two came annually for the purpoſe of holding the general aſſize, when the military tenants attended; and at theſe aſſizes, not only the ancient laws were proclaimed, but political ordinances for internal government were propoſed, ordered to be immediately obſerved, and the ſanction of the duke, or ſupreme ſtates of the duchy, obtained as ſoon as poſſible, if ſuch ordinances were of ſufficient import to require it; thoſe of a trivial nature being renewed from one aſſize to another.

Whether the royal court, eſtabliſhed by King John, then aſſumed to themſelves this legiſlative power, or it was exerciſed by the ſtates of the iſland, as in the other bailiwicks of the duchy, cannot clearly be aſcertained. It is evident that the court poſſeſſed it before the year 1568.

Assembly of the States. This aſſembly is a general council, compoſed of the repreſentatives of the people: under this appellation it has been held for many centuries, and its deputies been received by His Majeſty, and the lords of his council, upon all appeals and public repreſentations. It is thus compoſed.

	Members.
The bailiff, (who preſides as ſpeaker,) twelve jurats, and procureur - - - - -	14
The eight rectors of the ten pariſhes, (the Vale and St. Sampſon's, the Foreſt and Torteval being united,) -	8
The two conſtables in each pariſh - - - -	20
The twelve douzainiers in each, excepting the Town pariſh, St. Peter's Port, wherein there are twenty, and the Vale, having ſixteen, making together - -	132
In all -	174

States of Election and Deliberation. The principal buſineſs of what is termed the ſtates of election, is the nomination of jurats, and appointment of the prevoſt, in which every member is entitled to ſuffrage; but the raiſing of money is voted by what are called the States of Deliberation. This can be done only on occaſional emergencies: for permanent aſſeſſments application muſt be made to the King, and the aſſeſſment

aſſeſſment is made by fixed proportions, according to ancient cuſtom in the iſland. In the States of Deliberation are

The bailiff, twelve jurats, and procureur - -	14
The eight rectors of the ten pariſhes - - -	8
The united voice of conſtables and douzainiers of each pariſh - - - - -	10
	32

Whenever the King's ſervice, or the exigence of the iſland, requires the aſſembling of the ſtates of deliberation, the bailiff, with the conſent of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief, fixes the day for the convention of the ſtates, inſerts in the writs iſſued for that purpoſe, the matters to be deliberated upon. This may be done without the concurrence of the jurats; but by uſage, long obſerved, the bailiff communicates to them in the royal court the day and the matters intended for their deliberation. Theſe writs are prepared by the greffier, ſigned by the bailiff, and directed to the conſtables, who are to communicate them to the rector, take the ſenſe of the douzaine of their reſpective pariſhes upon the ſubject ſpecially ſet forth, and come prepared to give their voice accordingly; for, excepting in the election of magiſtrates, the douzainiers and conſtables do not attend individually, but give their aſſent or diſſent collectively in each pariſh, by which means the votes are compreſſed into thirty-two, out of which the royal court have in themſelves fourteen.

At the aſſembly of the ſtates of deliberation, a committee is appointed for auditing public accounts, public works are propoſed, and deputies appointed to carry over addreſſes and memorials to His Majeſty in council.

Administration of the Law. The feudal ſyſtem at one time prevailed ſtrictly in Guernſey, and the law was adminiſtered according to its forms. Theſe forms have varied and improved with the times, but the ſyſtem adopted in England has never been altogether eſtabliſhed.

The Royal Court. The royal court conſiſts of the bailiff and twelve jurats, choſen by the members of the ſtates, the repreſentatives of the people, all ſerving for life, unleſs diſcharged by the King and council. The officers attendant on, or belonging to the court, are the procureur or attorney-general for the iſland; the comptroller, whoſe office is ſimilar to that of ſolicitor-general; theſe are termed the King's officers; a prevoſt, or King's ſheriff; the greffier or regiſtrar; and the King's ſerjeant. Ever ſince the eſtabliſhment of the royal court, inſtead of the aſſizes being held annually, as had been

been the cuſtom, the bailiff and jurats have adminiſtered juſtice three times in a week during term time, and once a week out of term; and even oftener when neceſſity required.

There are three terms in a year, which open the firſt Monday after the 15th January, the firſt Monday after Eaſter, and the firſt Monday after the 29th September; and each continues ſix weeks. The ſixteen military tenants are obliged to attend the chief pleas, or opening of the terms, as are alſo the thirteen bordiers. This ſervice, and a fine of ſixty ſols (four ſhillings and three pence,) when the property of the fief is changed, are all the military tenants are now ſubject to. They are not, as formerly, members of the ſtates.

On the firſt day or opening of each term, called the chief plaids or capital pleas, bye-laws or ordinances are made, which have the immediate effect of law; but ſuch ordinances as do not receive the royal approbation, and if repreſented in their ſtrongeſt light, are only equal in force to bye-laws made by corporations in England.

For the ordinary courſe of buſineſs four jurats in rotation attend in each term, during which there are eight or ten court-days for hearing cauſes in the firſt inſtance, when two jurats, with the bailiff or his deputy, (who muſt ever be preſent to compoſe a court,) are ſufficient: this court is called *Cour Ordinaire*. If the parties are diſſatisfied, they appeal to a court of more jurats, termed *Cour d'Appeaux*; and from thence to the *Court of Judgments*, where at leaſt ſeven jurats muſt be preſent. This court is held three times in each term; and if even the bailiff and all the twelve jurats are in court at the ſecond hearing, an appeal lies to the Court of Judgments, where a leſs number may happen to preſide; and from this Court of Judgments only, appeals, under certain reſtrictions, are made to His Majeſty in council. But if at the firſt hearing of a cauſe, five jurats ſhould be preſent, the appeal is made to the Court of Judgments directly.

The *Mobilaire Courts* are held on the Monday, in which pleas are determined for moveables or chattels, the pariſhes being divided into diſtricts; the low pariſhes, viz. St. Peter's Port, St. Sampſon's, and the Vale; and the high pariſhes, compriſing the remainder, occupying the alternate Mondays.

On the Tueſdays following the Monday's court for the low pariſhes, judgments or final decrees are given; and on the Tueſdays next after the court for the high pariſhes, courts of heritage are held, termed *Plaids d'Heritage*, for the determination of all ſuits relative to inheritance. The Tueſday's courts were formerly called *Des Namps*, from *namier*, an old French

French word ſignifying to diſtrain, and were ſet apart for the determination of all cauſes relating to ſeizures or diſtreſs.

The Saturday's courts are for the paſſing of contracts, Admiralty cauſes, and criminal informations; the other intermediate days, in or out of term, being devoted to the hearing of cauſes in general. But the Saturday's courts for criminal cauſes laſt from the chief pleas of Eaſter to the middle of July; from Michaelmas to Chriſtmas; and from the 15th of January to the Saturday before the holy week.

The bailiff or his lieutenant, who muſt preſide at all the courts, ſums up the evidence, and comments on the nature of the cauſe, but has nevertheleſs no voice in the deciſion. He then takes the opinion of the jurats in rotation; and if the number preſent ſhould be equally divided in their judgment, he decides the controverſy by a caſting vote; all matters in litigation being determined by majority, and not by unanimity, as in England.

If the party diſſatisfied is refuſed an appeal in the iſland, he may, by what is termed a *doléance*, or *plaint de grief*, apply for redreſs to His Majeſty in council; and in like manner may complain, if refuſed his appeal from judgment to council. But in the latter caſe, the matter in diſpute muſt be of the value of forty pounds in chattel intereſt, or forty ſhillings eſtate of inheritance, or an appeal cannot be claimed.

No appeal whatever can be made in criminal cauſes, and the bailiff and jurats are empowered to proceed to condemnation and execution, except in caſes of treaſon, coining, and the laying injurious hands on the perſon of the bailiff or any of the jurats. All trials are in French, at leaſt in the local language of the iſland.

Privileges.—The privileges of the iſland of Guernſey may be conſidered under under two diſtinct heads, thoſe of Norman origin before the conqueſt, and thoſe derived from charters ſince. As Norman ſubjects, they ſtill enjoy the privileges of being governed by the ancient laws of that Duchy, ſanctioned and approved by the Britiſh monarchs, or Dukes of Normandy. By grants or charters, they are admitted in England to all the privileges of Britiſh-born ſubjects; the authority of parliament to legiſlate is on the ſame footing as in Jerſey, nor can the writs of the Britiſh courts extend to theſe iſlands, except thoſe of the Admiralty court—the orders of His Majeſty in council being the only authority to which they own obedience. The charter granted by King John, which is conſidered as the Magna Charta of the iſland, was confirmed and extended by many ſucceeding ſovereigns, and particularly by Queen Elizabeth. That princeſs granted that the iſlanders

ſhould be freed from all tributes, tolls, contributions, and exactions throughout England; confirmed their ancient privileges of free navigation and commerce, and not only within the iſlands and maritime places, and all around the ſame, but at ſuch ſpaces and diſtances from the iſlands as the ſight of man goes to, or the eye of man reaches. This extraordinary privilege of neutrality exiſts no longer; but the Queen alſo confirmed the ancient laws and cuſtoms, granting to the bailiffs, jurats, magiſtrates, and officers of juſtice, their wonted extent of juriſdiction. By theſe charters, too, throughout the king's dominions and territories, *citra vel ultra mare*, the natives are to be treated, not *tanquam alienigenæ*, as foreigners and aliens, but *tanquam indigenæ*, as native Engliſhmen; but an Engliſhman is conſidered as a foreigner, ſhut out from the common immunities of the iſland, and ſubject as it were to diſtinct laws, his perſon being liable to arreſt for the moſt trivial ſum (leſs than ſixpence), and his bail, though of known ſufficiency, objectionable; whilſt, on the contrary, a native or admitted inhabitant, poſſeſſing even no more than a ſingle buſhel of wheat rent, is not only privileged from arreſt, but unexceptionable ſurety to almoſt any amount.

Commerce and Revenue. Although the productions of Guernſey are not ſufficient for the ſupport of its inhabitants, yet induſtry, and the privileges before alluded to, have given her a thriving and profitable foreign commerce. The revenue conſiſts of the general taxes, the harbour dues, the duties levied yearly upon licenſed victuallers or retailers of liquors, and the produce of lotteries; which, without overburthening the people by exceſſive taxation, afford ample proviſion for every neceſſity.

Productions. The animal, mineral, or vegetable produce of the iſland is not much entitled to notice. Timber, it is obſerved, is of ſlow growth, not very luxuriant or lofty; the hedges are moſtly compoſed of furze, ſown on raiſed banks of green ſward or turf, which makes an excellent fence, both profitable and uſeful. The orchards, chiefly of apple-trees, are likewiſe very productive, and a great quantity of cider is made and conſumed in the iſland: indeed, moſt kinds of fruit, eſpecially raſpberries, ſtrawberries, currants, gooſeberries, plums, cherries, grapes, figs, peaches, nectarines, and apricots, grow in great abundance; and ſo congenial is the clime for what are termed hot-houſe or green-houſe plants, that moſt of them thrive well, unprotected by art; and myrtles and geraniums ſtand out all the year planted in the open ground. Even orange-trees, with but little winter ſhelter, will fructify; and melons are raiſed under hand glaſſes, like cucumbers in

England. The fig-tree attains great luxuriance in theſe iſlands. Indeed, vegetation in general thrives abundantly; and although the ſun ſheds a powerful influence, it is ſo tempered with the cooling breezes of the ſea, that the heat is by no means ſultry or oppreſſive. The winters are rather wet than cold: intenſe froſt is unknown, and ſnow ſeldom lies more than a day or two; yet inſects are not more numerous than elſewhere, nor does the heat of the ſun nouriſh venomous reptiles; neither ſnake, adder, viper or toad, is to be found throughout the iſland; the blind worm is now and then to be ſeen, and ſome few lizards, perfectly harmleſs, are to be found in the furze lands. The iſland is well watered with ſmall rivulets and ſprings, and the lands which produce furze are perhaps as profitable as any other for fuel, as neither wood nor coppice is to be ſeen. The iſland is entirely deſtitute of game of every deſcription, and the ſportſman is obliged to content himſelf with the ſlaughter of rabbits, blackbirds, larks, and thruſhes: in the ſeaſon, woodcocks, ſnipes, and fieldfares, are tolerably plentiful; but, although ſurrounded by the ocean, ſea fowl are not very numerous, nor eaſily approached within gun-ſhot. Moſt of the feathered ſongſters, which ornithologiſts term Britiſh birds, either migratory or ſtationary, are at times ſeen in this iſland; but the nightingale ſeldom or never makes its appearance, though in the neighbouring iſland of Jerſey, which is more woody, it is not uncommon. Environed by a rocky ſea, a great variety of fiſh is taken in abundance; and formerly moſt of the religious houſes in Normandy were ſupplied from this iſland.

Manners and Society. The country people, in their lives and manners, exhibit a rude ſtate of native ſimplicity, which might be expected in a continental interior with little or no intercourſe with civilized ſociety, and not in a ſmall iſland like this, ſo nearly connected with Great Britain and the neighbouring ſhores of France. They are in fact more than a century behind the generality of Europe, which may be accounted for, in ſome meaſure, by the little friendly intercourſe ſubſiſting among the natives themſelves, the more enlightened ſeldom aſſociating even with ruſtic independence but in the moſt diſtant and reſerved manner; and the deſcendant of a jurat, douzainier, or conſtable, will not aſſociate with the merchant or tradeſman, however opulent and reſpectable. The uncommonly minute diviſion of property provides a ſort of independent ſubſiſtence for a greater number of perſons than can be well imagined; and a mediocrity, rather bordering upon poverty, ſeems to prevail throughout the country. Superſtition has been very prevalent. Between the years 1598 and 1634,

no

no leſs than nine women and two men were burnt for ſorcery; witches and ghoſts ſtill alarm the ignorant and credulous; and certain old women have the credit of ſupernatural powers over man and beaſt. Witch finders, with ſovereign antidotes to deſtroy their magic ſpells, have been lately publiſhed by the Royal Court; and a houſe for ſome years remained untenanted, from a ridiculous ſtory of its being haunted. A ſupernatural chimera, called the *Bete-la-twa*, is ſaid at Chriſtmas to make nightly perambulations about the town, creating great terror, and furniſhing infinite reſources to fancy and credulity.

The old Norman French, corrupted rather than improved, is generally ſpoken; indeed, few of the country people diſcourſe in Engliſh, and not many of the more enlightened have yet attained the true Engliſh pronunciation. The generality of the natives have the appearance and manners of French rather than Engliſh people. Poor and parſimonious in their living and dreſs, even their domeſtic utenſils and implements of huſbandry are all in the French ſtyle. The habit of ſending young females of the higher circles to England for education muſt diminiſh the effect of theſe habits; but, perhaps, a total change is not ſoon, if at all, to be expected.

ALDERNEY.

The Iſland of Alderney, which lies to the north-eaſt of Guernſey about ſix leagues, and ſcarcely ſeven miles weſt from Cape la Hogue, meaſures in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt nearly four miles, and in breadth not more than one mile and a half, the whole circumference being about ten miles. It ſhelves to the north-eaſt, interſected by deep valleys, bounded on the ſouthern and weſtern ſides by cliffs, interſected with ſmall bays; the rocky ſcenery being both pictureſque and ſtrikingly grand.

Government. The civil juriſdiction of the iſland is exerciſed by a judge and ſix jurats, the former nominated by the governor, and the latter elected by the commonalty, holding their ſeveral appointments for life, unleſs removed for miſbehaviour or malverſation in office. Theſe, with the King's officers, namely, the King's procureur or attorney-general, the King's comptroller or ſolicitor-general, and the greffier or regiſter, alſo nominated by the governor, compoſe the court. But their deciſions are not definitive; the iſland being conſidered as a dependence of Guernſey, appeal may be made to the royal court there, and from thence to the King in council: and in all criminal caſes, the court of Alderney has only the power of receiving evidence, which is tranſmitted to the ſuperior

court of Guernſey, where judgment is pronounced on the offender, and the ſentence of the law executed.

The judge and ſix jurats, together with the douzaine or douzainiers, being twelve men choſen by the commonalty as repreſentatives, compoſe the aſſembly of the States, wherein all ordinances for the good government of the iſland are propoſed. But it appears that the douzaine have only a deliberative voice, and no vote; the judge and jurats alone decide as to the expediency of any meaſure propoſed. The governor or his lieutenant muſt ever be preſent at ſuch meeting, but has likewiſe no vote.

Property. By the laſt extent of the crown, made in the reign of James I., in 1607, it appears that the iſland of Alderney was then in His Majeſty's hands, who was entitled to the *amendes* or perquiſites of the courts, the treiziemes upon the ſales of lands, the wreck, and other princely rights and regalities; but it has ſince been granted in fee-farm to ſeveral tenants; and his preſent Majeſty, by letters patent, bearing date the 14th December, 1763, in conſideration of the ſurrender of the former leaſe or patent, which had then become veſted in John Le Meſurier, Eſq. (the grandfather of the preſent poſſeſſor), and for other conſiderations therein mentioned, gave and granted the iſland to the ſaid John Le Meſurier, his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for the term of ninety-nine years, at a yearly rent of thirteen ſhillings, with a proviſo for reſumption and making void the leaſe at any time, "upon payment to the ſaid John Le Meſurier, his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, of ſuch ſum or ſums of money as he had then diſburſed, or that ſhould thereafter be diſburſed or laid out in building improvement upon the manſion-houſe, called the governor's houſe, and other the premiſes, to be aſcertained by ſix or more of the lords or other of the privy council."

Present State. Only about one half of this iſland is in a ſtate of cultivation, the remainder is common and furze lands, with good feed for ſheep, but rather too ſhort for cattle. The ſoil is naturally good, and the agriculture much the ſame as in Guernſey. The whole iſland has but a barren appearance; few trees, and no hedges, are to be ſeen, the encloſures being fenced with looſe ſtone walls and furze banks.

There ſtill exiſts part of a caſtle begun by the Earl of Eſſex in Queen Elizabeth's time, but never finiſhed, the ruinous foundation of which ſtill retains that favourite's name. The little iſland of Burhou, lying to the weſtward, is not inhabited, but uſed as a rabbit-warren by the governor.

The pier is but of rude ſtructure, with only one projecting arm to ſhelter veſſels from the north-eaſt. The whole iſland is beſet with rocks, or rather forms part of a long chain, extending to the Caſkets, whereon a light-houſe has been erected

with revolving reflectors. On this dangerous part of the coaſt the young prince, ſon of Henry I., was ſhipwrecked and loſt. The ſtrait which divides the iſland from Cape *La Hogue*, called by the French "*le Ras de Blanchart*," and by us the Race of Alderney, is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet, and which at ſpring tides run with the rapidity of ſix knots an hour; and what is termed the *Swinge*, the paſſage on the other ſide of the iſland, is a place no leſs dangerous.

There are about two hundred and eighty dwelling-houſes in the iſland, and the population is computed to be nearly thirteen hundred perſons.

SERK.

This little iſland lies about ſix miles to the eaſtward of Guernſey, is one of its dependencies, and immediately under its juriſdiction; it is rather more than three miles in length, and ſcarcely a mile in average breadth: at one part, called the *Coupée*, it is nearly divided into two portions, being connected only by a high and narrow ridge not many yards in width. It was granted by Queen Elizabeth in fee-farm, by letters patent, dated 6th Auguſt, 1565, to Philip de Carteret, Eſq. (as a reward for his ſervices in the retaking it from the French,) by the twentieth part of a knight's fee, amounting, as appears by the extent of James I., to fifty ſols ſterling, payable to the king's receiver at Guernſey, at Michaelmas only. The fief or ſeigniory is now in the poſſeſſion of John Le Pelley, Eſq., who holds his feudal court, from which appeals are made to the royal court of Guernſey.

Unlike the iſlands of Guernſey, Alderney, and Jerſey, which are of wedge form, ſhelving on one ſide, Serk is a table land, riſing ſome little toward the weſt, but having no declivity to the ſea at any part, excepting a trifling deſcent at the northern extremity. The ſurrounding cliffs, meaſuring from one to two hundred feet in height, are ſo very abrupt on the weſtern ſide, that the largeſt ſhips may approach very near without danger, but the eaſtern ſhore is beſet with ridges of rocks running far out into the ſea. The rocky ſcenery is here very picturesque and grand; that of the *port des Moulins*, in particular, the deſcent to which is through a narrow paſs, uncommonly wild and romantic. Such is the natural defence of the iſland, that although there are five landing places, except at what is called the *Creux*, where a tunnel was cut in 1588, by one of the De Carterets, through the rock, there is ſcarcely any entrance to be found without the difficulty of climbing. The neareſt landing to Guernſey is that of *Havre Goſſelin*, which is formed

between the land and the little *Iſle des Marchands* on the weſtern ſide. The high ridge or iſthmus which joins the main iſland to that of *Petit Serk*, is about three hundred yards in length, with a precipice immediately to the ſea on the eaſtern ſide, and over broken rocks and rubbiſh on the weſtern, of terrific appearance, being ſcarcely five or ſix feet wide in ſome places. It is ſaid that a copper mine was worked here about a century ago; but as no trace of it is now to be ſeen, its exiſtence is ſcarcely poſſible, though copper and other ores are frequently found in the kind of rock which abounds in this iſland.

ERM OR HERM AND JETHOU.

THE two ſmaller iſlands of Herm and Jethou, lying eaſtward of Guernſey about three miles, are ſeparated from each other by a narrow ſtrait. They were both in the king's hands at the time of the laſt extent (James I.), and held by the governor, for the feeding of deer, cattle and ſheep, and were then valued to be letten for a term of years in fee-farm; the former at thirty livres ſterling per annum, and the latter at one hundred ſols. They have both been ſince granted in fee-farm, Herm at the rent of fourteen pounds ſterling, renewable every twenty-one years upon the payment of forty-two pounds, and Jethou at a rent of about fifty ſhillings.

THE SCILLY ISLANDS.

THE Scilly, or Silley Iſlands, lie due weſt from the Lizard about ſeventeen leagues; weſt-and-by-ſouth from the Old Land's End, neareſt Mount's Bay, at the diſtance of ten leagues; and from the Weſtern Land's End they lie weſt-ſouth-weſt at the diſtance of ſomething more than nine leagues. The importance of theſe iſlands ariſes from their advantageous ſituation, as looking equally into St. George's and the Engliſh Channel. For this reaſon, moſt ſhips bound from the ſouthward ſtrive to make the Scilly Iſlands, in order to ſteer their courſe with greater certainty. It is very convenient alſo for veſſels to take ſhelter amongſt them, which prevents them from being driven to Milford Haven, nay, ſometimes into ſome port in Ireland, if the wind is ſtrong at eaſt; or, if it blows hard at north-weſt, from being forced back into ſome of the Corniſh harbours, or even on the French coaſts. If the wind ſhould not be very high, yet if unfavourable or unſteady, as between the channels often happens, it is better to put into Scilly than

to

to beat about at ſea in bad weather. In time of war, their utility is ſtill more conſiderable.

With theſe obſervations, all power of deſcanting on their importance is exhauſted. They are ſaid to be one hundred and forty-five in number; but if they have been correctly counted, it has been merely for the ſake of exactneſs, as only five or ſix are inhabited, and not many are even named. It is confidently ſaid, and repeated by many writers, that theſe rocks are the Caſſeiterides of the Greeks, but Mr. Pinkerton derides the opinion: they are alſo ſaid to have been called Heſperides and Ceſtrymenides.

Of the inhabited iſlands the moſt conſiderable is *St. Mary's*, which is ſaid to be two miles and a half in length, one and a half in breadth, and leſs than ten in compaſs, with a caſtle and a garriſon. *Treſcaw*, formerly called *St. Nicholas*, lies directly north of St. Mary's, and is ſaid to be half its ſize; it has the remains of an abbey. *St. Martin's* is about the ſize of Treſcaw, from which it is diſtant about a mile; it was at one time totally deſerted. *St. Agnes* has alſo the name of the *Light Iſland*, from the light-houſe, which is its principal ornament and ſupport. It is a fine column, built with ſtone from the foundation to the lanthorn, which is fifty-one feet high; the gallery four; the faſh-lights eleven feet and a half high, three feet two inches wide, and ſixteen in number. The floor of the lanthorn is of brick, upon which ſtands a ſubſtantial iron grate, ſquare, barred on every ſide, with one great chimney in the canopy roof, and ſeveral leſſer ones, to let out the ſmoke; and a large pair of ſmith's bellows are ſo fixed, as to be eaſily uſed whenever there is occaſion. Upon the whole, it is a noble and commodious ſtructure, and being plaſtered white, is an uſeful day-mark to ſhips coming from the ſouthward. *Brehar* lies north-weſt of St. Mary's, and to the weſt of Treſcaw, to which, when the ſea is very low, they ſometimes paſs over the ſand. *Sanſom Iſland* is ſaid to contain one family. The lateſt authorities people theſe iſlands with about one thouſand inhabitants. More than two thouſand acres are ſaid to be uſed for agricultural purpoſes. The ſmall craft employed in fiſhing, and as pilots, may probably exceed three hundred tons. Sheep and rabbits are produced in abundance; ſome cattle and ſmall horſes, alſo poultry and vegetables; but the principal reſource of the iſlanders is in the manufacture of kelp.

GIBRALTAR.

GIBRALTAR is ſituated in Andaluſia, the moſt ſouthern province of Spain. The rock is ſeven miles in circumference, forming a promontory three miles long, and is joined to the continent by an iſthmus of low ſand: the ſouthern extremity lies in 36° 2′ 30″ N. lat., and in 5° 15′ W. long. from the meridian of London.

Hiſtorians, from very early periods, have noticed Gibraltar, or *Mons Calpe*, by a well-known mythological fiction, denominating it, and *Mons Abyla*, on the oppoſite coaſt of Africa, the *Pillars of Hercules*. It does not, however, appear that the hill was ever inhabited by the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, or Romans, who in the firſt ages of navigation viſited the bay, and built cities in its neighbourhood; or that it ever engaged the attention of thoſe intrepid and ſucceſsful barbarians, who ſo violently ſubverted the Roman empire, and eſtabliſhed a new government in Spain. It began to be remarkable for the natural ſtrength of its ſituation in the beginning of the eighth century, when the Saracens (then become a powerful nation in the eaſt, and along the coaſt of Africa,) invaded Spain, and ſoon after made themſelves maſters of the whole country.

The Gothic kingdom, which had exiſted in Spain for 300 years, was, before the invaſion of the Saracens, diſtracted with inteſtine diviſions: the nation was become effeminate, neglecting the military diſcipline of their anceſtors; and their monarch, Roderic, a profligate prince, not a little accelerated their ruin, by raviſhing the daughter of Count Julian. This nobleman, who poſſeſſed great power and influence, and was governor of Ceuta in Africa, found means, in 711, to facilitate an invaſion by the Saracens. Tarif Ebn Zarca, who commanded the invading force, determined to ſecure an intercourſe with Africa, by eſtabliſhing a poſt on the coaſt; and preferring the ſtrong natural ſituation of *Mons Calpe*, gave orders to erect a caſtle on the face of the hill, which might anſwer the original purpoſe, and alſo cover his retreat, in caſe he ſhould be unfortunate in his operations. The ſuperior part of this once magnificent pile at preſent remains, and an inſcription over the principal gate fixed the period of its being finiſhed about the year 725.

Tarif, leaving a garriſon at the foot of *Mons Calpe*, (which was now called by the Saracens, in compliment to their general, *Gibel Tarif*, or the Mountain of Tarif, and thence Gibraltar,) marched into the country, ſurpriſed many towns, and van-

vanquiſhing King Roderic in a pitched battle near Xeres in Andaluſia, gained poſſeſſion of the whole kingdom.

While the Moors retained poſſeſſion of any part of Spain, Gibraltar was frequently beſieged, and generally ſucceſsfully defended; but in 1642, when the Mooriſh power was in the wane, a civil war breaking out in Grenada, great part of the garriſon of Gibraltar was withdrawn, to aſſiſt one of the competitors for the crown: the governor of Tarifa, learning this fact, aſſembled an army from the neighbouring garriſons, and beſieged Gibraltar, which, after a brave defence, ſurrendered; the Duke de Medina Sidonia deemed the conqueſt of ſuch importance as to travel expreſs, that he might have the honour of granting the capitulation.

Henry IV., of Caſtile and Leon, overjoyed at wreſting from the Mahometans a place they had held 748 years, added it to his royal titles, and gave it for arms, *gules*, a caſtle, with a key pendent to the gate, *or*, (alluding to its being the key to the Mediterranean,) which arms have ever ſince been continued. In 1704 it was wreſted (probably for ever) from the dominion of Spain, by the Engliſh, under Sir George Rooke. This admiral had been ſent into the Mediterranean, with a ſtrong fleet, in the ſpring, to aſſiſt Charles, Archduke of Auſtria, in obtaining the crown of Spain; but his inſtructions being limited, nothing of importance was done. Senſible of the reflections that would fall on him, for being inactive with ſo powerful an armament, by advice of a council of war, on the 21ſt of July, 1704, he diſembarked on the iſthmus 1800 men, Engliſh and Dutch, commanded by the Prince of Heſſe D'Armſtadt. The garriſon was ſummoned, but the governor refuſing to ſurrender, preparations were made for the attack. By day-break on the 23d, the ſhips appointed to cannonade the town, under Admirals Byng and Vanderduſſen, with thoſe that were deſtined to batter the new mole, commanded by Captain Hicks, were at their ſeveral ſtations. The admiral made the ſignal to begin the cannonade, which was performed with great vivacity and effect, ſo that the enemy, in five or ſix hours, were driven from their guns, eſpecially from the mole head. The admiral, conſidering that by gaining that fortification the town might ſooner be reduced, ordered Captain Whitaker, with the armed boats, to poſſeſs himſelf of it; but Captains Hicks and Jumper, who lay next the mole, puſhed aſhore with their pinnaces, before the reſt came up; whereupon the Spaniards ſprung a mine, which blew up the fortifications, killed two lieutenants and forty men, and wounded ſixty. The aſſailants nevertheleſs kept poſſeſſion of the work, and being joined by Captain Whitaker, advanced and took a ſmall baſtion,

baſtion, half way between the mole and the town. The Marquis de Salines, who was governor, being again ſummoned, thought proper to capitulate; hoſtages were exchanged, and the Prince of Heſſe, on the 24th, took poſſeſſion of the gates.

The courts of Madrid and Paris, concerned at the loſs of ſo important a fortreſs, and conſidering its recovery of the laſt conſequence to the cauſe, ordered the Marquis de Villadarias, a grandee of Spain, to beſiege it. His attempt, although purſued with great vigour and ably ſupported, failed. In ſubſequent wars other ſieges were formed, without ſucceſs, but none ſo memorable as that which began in the ſummer of 1779, and ended in September 1782, in the complete defeat of the French and Spaniards and the deſtruction of their formidable preparations. The defence of the fortreſs on this occaſion confers immortal honour on General Elliot, afterward Lord Heathfield.

Description. The promontory, or rock, at the foot of which ſtands the town, is upwards of 1300 feet in height; projecting into the ſea ſeveral miles from the continent, to which it is connected by an iſthmus of low ſand. This appearance makes it not improbable that *Mons Calpe* has in former ages been totally ſurrounded by the ſea. The north front of the peninſula, which preſents itſelf to the main land, is of various heights. The breadth of the iſthmus at the foot of the rock is about 900 yards; but it grows conſiderably wider toward the country. Acroſs this iſthmus (which, with Gibraltar and the oppoſite coaſt, forms the bay,) the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line at about a mile's diſtance from the garriſon, extending 1700 yards, and embracing both ſhores: a fort of maſonry is erected at each extremity, mounting twenty-three or twenty-four guns each; they are of different conſtructions, and are called St. Philip and St. Barbara. The former of theſe forts commands the beſt and the uſual anchoring place of our ſhipping and ſmall craft, and by forming a croſs fire with Fort St. Barbara, on the neutral ground, prevents all communication between the garriſon and the country. The rock is ſeparated by a ridge from north to ſouth, dividing it into two unequal parts. The weſtern front or diviſion is a gradual ſlope, interſperſed with precipices; but the oppoſite ſide, looking to the Mediterranean, and the north front, facing the Spaniſh lines, are both naturally very ſteep, and totally inacceſſible. It is this peculiar circumſtance which forms the chief ſtrength of Gibraltar.

The town is built at the foot of the north-weſt face of the hill, and is fortified in an irregular manner. The communi-

cation,

eation with it from the iſthmus is by a long narrow cauſeway, (ſerving as a dam to an inundation,) which is defended by a curtain, with two baſtions, mounting twenty-ſix pieces of cannon, a dry ditch, covered way, and glacis well mined. Theſe, with the cauſeway, are warmly flanked by the King's, Queen's, and Prince's lines: works cut in the rock with immenſe labour, and ſcarped to be almoſt inacceſſible. Above the lines are the batteries at Willis's, and others at different heights, until they crown the ſummit of the rock, where ſeveral batteries are erected for cannon and mortars. Theſe batteries, the loweſt of which is upwards of 400 feet above the neutral ground, mount between fifty and and ſixty pieces of heavy ordnance, and entirely command the iſthmus below. Excluſive of what are here mentioned, additional works of a ſingular nature were projected in 1782, and partly executed the year following, which when finiſhed will render Gibraltar (almoſt) impregnable in that quarter. The old-mole, to the weſt of the grand battery, forms alſo a very formidable flank, and, with the lines, a croſs-fire on the cauſeway and neutral ground. This battery has been found ſo great an annoyance to the beſiegers, that by way of diſtinction it has long been known under the appellation of the *Devil's Tongue*. Indeed, the ordnance in the lines upon the grand battery and the old mole altogether exhibit ſo formidable an appearance to a ſpectator on the cauſeway, that the entrance into the garriſon is called by the Spaniards the *mouth of fire*. From the grand battery along the ſea-line looking toward the bay, the town is defended by the North, Montague's, Prince of Orange's, King's and South baſtions; the line wall or curtains between which mount many cannon and mortars. The King's baſtion is a very complete piece of fortification, commanding the bay from New to Old Mole Heads, and mounting twelve thirty-two pounders, and four ten inch howitzers in front, ten guns and howitzers on its flanks, and has caſemates for eight hundred men, with kitchens and ovens for cooking. Montague's is much ſmaller, mounts only twelve pieces of cannon, but has a caſemate for two hundred men, communicating with the Old Mole. In 1782 the engineers began a cavalier upon this baſtion for two guns; but it was not finiſhed till after the grand attack in September. Another work of this nature was likewiſe erected in the beginning of the blockade for five guns, on the north baſtion of the grand battery. The town on the ſea line is not leſs protected by natural defences than by fortifications. A ſhoal of ſharp rocks extends along the front far into the bay,

bay, and prevents ſhips of large burthen from approaching very near the walls.

From the ſouth baſtion (which is conſiderably higher than the reſt of the works, in order to protect the town from the eminences on the red ſands,) a curtain extends up the face of the hill, and concludes, at an inacceſſible precipice, the works of the town. In this curtain is the ſouth port gate, before which and the ſouth baſtion is the dry ditch, with a covered way and glacis. At the eaſt end, on the declivity of the hill, above the gate, is a large flat baſtion, connected with the curtain, and mounting thirteen guns, bearing on the bay, &c. This work is covered by a demi-baſtion that joins the precipice. Above the precipice an old Mooriſh wall is continued to the ridge of the rock; in the front of which a curtain with loop-holes and redans (built in the reign of the Emperor Charles V. and called after his name) extends to the top, effectually cutting off all communication in that quarter. Between the Mooriſh and Charles the Fifth's walls is the ſignal houſe; whence the guard, on a ſerene and clear day, have almoſt an unbounded view of the Mediterranean, and can juſt obſerve a part of the Atlantic ocean over the Spaniſh mountains.

Such is the account given by Colonel Drinkwater of the fortifications of the town. From the ſouth baſtion, he adds, a line wall is continued along the beach to the new mole, where an irregular fort is erected, mounting twenty-ſix guns. This line wall is divided by a ſmall baſtion of eight guns; and in its rear is a retired work, called the Princeſs of Wales's lines, in which are ſeveral ſtrong batteries for the ſea. Near the ſouth baſtion, though without the town, is a wharf called Ragged Staff, where ſupplies for the garriſon are uſually landed, being convenient from its vicinity to the victualling office and ſtores. The communication to this quay is by ſpiral wooden ſtairs, and a drawbridge opening into the covert way, in front of which is a ſmall work of maſonry mounting two guns. At the foot of the ſtairs is the baſon, where ſhipping take in water. Two tanks are alſo appropriated to this purpoſe near the eight gun baſtion, having a connection with the grand aqueduct.

In the New Mole there is a depth of water ſufficient for a ſhip of the line to lie alongſide the wharf and heave down. At the mole head is a circular battery for heavy metal, joined to the New Mole fort by a ſtrong wall, fraiſed, having a banquet for muſquetry, with two embraſures opening toward the bay. This mole, with the old mole at Waterport, were built for the accommodation of trading veſſels: the former however is generally occupied by men of war; and the latter, not having

having more than ſix feet at low water, only admits ſmall craft to the wharfs: merchantmen of large burthen are obliged therefore to anchor about half or three quarters of a mile from Waterport, in ſeven or eight fathoms. But in time of war this anchorage is commanded by the Spaniſh forts: they are conſequently, in caſe of a rupture with Spain, under the neceſſity of removing to the ſouthward of the New Mole, where the ground is ſo rocky and foul, that they are often in imminent danger during the ſtrong ſoutherly winds. From the New Mole fort to the north end of Roſia Bay, the rock is difficult of acceſs; nevertheleſs a parapet is continued, and batteries are erected, as ſituations dictate. The works at Roſia are ſtrong, and act as flanks to each other. They are cloſe along the beach, which is low, and have a retired battery of eight guns in their rear.

The rock continues to aſcend from the ſouth point of Roſia Bay, by Parſon's Lodge (behind which, upon an eminence, is a new battery, *en barbet*, on traverſing carriages,) to Campguard, and Buena Viſta, ſo called from the beautiful proſpect of the bay, and neighbouring kingdoms of Barbary and Spain, which is there preſented to a ſpectator. A line wall is raiſed, notwithſtanding the rock being inacceſſible, with cannon at different diſtances. At Buena Viſta there are ſeveral guns *en barbet*, which have great command; and the hill towards Europa is ſlightly fortified, which gives it the appearance, at a diſtance, of an old caſtle repaired. The rock then deſcends by the Devil's Bowling-green, ſo named from the irregularity of its ſurface, to Little Bay. At this poſt, which is totally ſurrounded with precipices, there is a barbet battery, flanking the works to the New Mole: thence the rock continues naturally ſteep for a conſiderable diſtance, when the line wall and batteries recommence, and extend in an irregular manner to Europa Point, the ſouthern extremity of the garriſon, though not the ſouthern point of Europe. The rock from this point is regularly perpendicular to Europa advance, where a few batteries and a poſt at the Cave-guard terminate the works. The fortifications along the ſea line at Europa do not, however, conſtitute the principal ſtrength of the garriſon. The retired and inacceſſible lines of Windmill-hill have great command, and being ſituated within muſquet-ſhot of the ſea, are very formidable and of great conſequence in that quarter.

Since the publication of Colonel Drinkwater's intereſting and valuable hiſtory, numerous additional works have been conſtructed to enſure the ſafety of this poſſeſſion, which, in every war in which Spain takes a part againſt Great Britain, is likely to be an object of determined conteſt.

THE

THE TOWN. The town is built on a bed of red ſand, ſimilar to thoſe eminences without South Port, which originally extended to the foot of the aſcent to the ſouth barracks. The buildings, before the town was deſtroyed in the laſt ſiege, were compoſed of different materials, principally of tapia, which is a cement conſiſting of mortar, made of ſand, lime, and ſmall pebbles, which being well tempered, and wrought together in a frame, acquires great ſtrength and ſolidity. Since the Engliſh have been in poſſeſſion of Gibraltar, many have been built of the rock ſtone, plaſtered and painted on the outſide to break the powerful rays of the ſun, which otherwiſe would be too glaring, and prejudicial to the eyes. The modern houſes were in general covered with tiles; but the flat terraced roofs remained in thoſe erected by the Spaniards, and in ſome, the mirandas or towers, whence the inhabitants, without removing from home, had a beautiful and extenſive proſpect of the neighbouring coaſts.

Of the buildings that deſerve notice, the old Mooriſh caſtle is the moſt conſpicuous. The ruins of a moſque, or place of worſhip, can be traced within the walls; as alſo a neat moriſque court, and reſervoir for water; but the latter cannot, without great difficulty, be diſcovered by a ſtranger. A large tower on the ſouth-eaſt wall is ſaid to have been erected by the Saracens, on their firſt invading Spain; and the preſent venerable remains are inconteſtable proofs of its former magnificence. The other principal buildings are the convent, or governor's quarters; the lieutenant-governor's houſe, which is a modern ſtructure; the Admiralty-houſe, formerly a monaſtery of white friars; the ſoldiers' barracks, the victualling-office, and ſtore-houſe. Beſide theſe, there are the Spaniſh church, the Ataraſana, or galley-houſe, and ſome other buildings, formerly of note, but ruined by the fire of the Spaniards during the great ſiege. At the ſouthward are the ſouth barracks and the navy hoſpital. There are alſo ſome other Mooriſh remains.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. The hill abounds in cavities, that ſerve as receptacles for the rain. None, however, is ſo ſingular as St. George's Cave on the ſide of the hill, in a line with the ſouth barracks, about 1,100 feet above the level of the ſea. At the entrance are the remains of a ſtrong wall. The mouth is only five feet wide; but on deſcending a ſlope of earth it expands conſiderably; and, with the aſſiſtance of torches, the openings of ſeveral ſmaller caves are diſcovered. The outer cave is about two hundred feet long, and ninety broad. The top appears to be ſupported by pillars of vaſt magnitude, formed by the perpetual droppings of petrifying water, the whole bearing great reſemblance to the inſide of a gloomy

Gothic cathedral. The ſeveral gradations in the progreſs of theſe petrifactions are eaſily diſcoverable. In ſome may be obſerved ſmall capitals, deſcending from the roof, whilſt proportionable baſes riſe underneath: others again are formed of very ſmall diameter; and a third claſs, immenſely large, ſeem to ſupport the roof of this wonderful cavern. Almoſt all ſtrangers who viſit Gibraltar are conducted to view this cave; and numbers, with the aſſiſtance of ropes and torches, have attempted to explore the depth; but after deſcending about five hundred feet, they have been obliged to return, by the groſs vapours which iſſued from beneath. There are ſeveral other caves on different parts of the hill, in which the water poſſeſſes the ſame petrifying qualities. One under Middle-hill is called Pocoroca.

Among the natural curioſities of Gibraltar, the petrified bones diſcovered in the cavities of the rocks have attracted great attention. Theſe bones are not found in one particular part, but in various places at a conſiderable diſtance from each other. From the rocks near Roſia Bay (without the line wall) great quantities of this curious petrifaction have been collected and ſent home for the inſpection of naturaliſts. Some of the bones are of large diameter; and, being broken with the rock, the marrow is eaſily to be diſtinguiſhed.

Animals. The hill is remarkable for the number of apes about its ſummit, which are ſaid not to be found in any other part of Spain. They breed in inacceſſible places, and frequently appear in large droves, with their young upon their backs. Red-legged partridges are often found in coveys; woodcocks and teal are ſometimes ſeen; and wild rabbits are caught about Europa and Windmill-hill. Eagles and vultures annually viſit Gibraltar from Barbary, in their way to the interior parts of Spain. The former breed in the craggy parts of the rock, and, with the hawk, are often ſeen towering round its ſummit. Muſquitoes are exceedingly troubleſome toward the cloſe of ſummer; and locuſts are ſometimes found. The ſcorpion, centipes, and other venomous reptiles, abound amongſt the rocks and old buildings; and the harmleſs green lizard and ſnake are frequently caught by the ſoldiers, who, after drawing their teeth, treat them with every mark of fondneſs.

Food. Gibraltar being nearly ſurrounded by the ſea is exceedingly well ſupplied with fiſh: the John Doree, turbot, ſoal, ſalmon, hake, rock-cod, mullet, and ranger, with great variety of leſs note, are caught along the Spaniſh ſhore, and in different parts of the bay. Mackarel are alſo taken in vaſt numbers during the ſeaſon, and ſhell-fiſh are ſometimes brought

brought from the neighbouring parts. The Moors, in times of peace, ſupply the garriſon with ox-beef, mutton, veal, and poultry, on moderate terms; and from Spain they procure pork, which is remarkable for its ſweetneſs and flavour. Fruits, ſuch as melons, oranges, green figs, grapes, and pomegranates, are brought in abundance from Barbary and Portugal; and the beſt wines are at very reaſonable prices.

CLIMATE. The inhabitants breathe a temperate and wholeſome air for moſt part of the year. The ſummer months of June, July, and Auguſt are exceſſively warm, with a perpetually ſerene and clear ſky: the heat is however allayed by a conſtant refreſhing breeze from the ſea, which uſually ſets in about ten in the forenoon, continuing till almoſt ſunſet; and, from its invigorating and agreeable coolneſs, is emphatically called the Doctor. The cold in winter is not ſo exceſſive as in the neighbouring parts of the country. Snow falls but ſeldom, and ice is a rarity; yet the Grenadian mountains in Spain, and the lofty hills in Africa, have ſnow lying on them for ſeveral months. Heavy rains, high winds, and moſt tremendous thunder, with dreadfully vivid lightning, are the attendants on December and January. The rain then pours down in torrents from the hill, and, deſcending with great rapidity, often choaks up the drains with large ſtones and rubbiſh, and ſometimes does great injury to the works; but theſe ſtorms are never of long duration; the ſky ſoon clears up, the heavy clouds diſperſe, the cheering ſun appears, and ſufficiently compenſates for the horrors of the night. During this ſeaſon the water that ſerves the garriſon for the enſuing ſummer is collected. The aqueduct which conducts it to the fountain in the centre of the town is extremely well executed, and was conſtructed by a Jeſuit during the dominion of the Spaniards. The water, ſtrained and purified in its paſſage from the reſervoir to the fountain, is remarkably clear and wholeſome.

POPULATION. According to accounts from the preſent governor, the inhabitants may be computed at 16,000, excluſive of the garriſon, who are about 4,000, and excluſive of about 3,000 tranſient perſons who are ſuppoſed to ſleep within the walls every night.

SHIPPING AND COMMERCE. The veſſels which belong to Gibraltar may be fairly taken at an average of three thouſand tons. It was an emporium for immenſe quantities of colonial produce and Britiſh merchandize, while the ports on the continent were ſhut againſt this country. The Americans imported large quantities of tobacco, Havanna ſugars, coffee, and all ſorts of Eaſt-India goods, which were ſmuggled, and took in return money, wine, brandy, and other articles. It is

assumed by several respectable merchants who reside there, that 800,000 pieces of nankeen are annually exported, and that the exports on an average of years could not be less than 2,000,000*l.* There being no custom-house, nor any revenue officer, smuggling is there carried on to an incalculable extent.

ESTABLISHMENT. Gibraltar is under the command of a Governor, who has a Lieutenant-governor, a chaplain, a secretary and officers. The situations of Deputy Judge-Advocate, Town Major, Barrack-master, and Commissary, are also of great importance, and some are liberally remunerated.

MALTA.

SITUATION. The Island of Malta is situate between Sicily and Africa, in 15° 54′ east longitude from London, and 35° 44′ 26″ of north latitude. It is the most southern island in Europe, distant sixty miles from Cape Passaro, a hundred and ninety from Cape Spartivento, in Calabria, the nearest point on the continent of Europe, two hundred from Calipia, the nearest part of the continent of Africa, and two hundred and seventy from Tripoly. It is sixty miles in circumference, twenty long and twelve broad. It faces on the east the Island of Candia; on the west, the small islands or rocks of Pantaleria, Linosa, and Lampedosa; on the north, Sicily; and on the south, the kingdom of Tunis. Some geographers have considered this island as belonging to the continent of Africa, but with respect to British subjects at least, all doubt on this point is terminated by the statute 41 Geo. 3. c. 103., which enacts that this island, with its dependencies shall, for all purposes, and in all matters and things whatsoever, be considered to be part of Europe.

HISTORY. The most ancient author who mentions Malta is Homer, in his Odyssey, where it is called the Isle of Hyperia, which, according to fabulous history, was originally inhabited by Phæacians, a race of giants. The Phœnicians seized on Hyperia about 1519 years before Christ, established a colony, which soon became powerful and considerable, and they named it Ogygia. The Greeks drove the Phœnicians from Ogygia 736 years before Christ, and called it *Melitaion*, or Melita. About 528 years before the Christian æra, the Carthaginians disputed the possession with the Greeks, and after a long contest expelled them. The Romans acquired a title by treaty 242 years before Christ, and at the beginning of the second punic war first entirely established their dominion.

On the division of the Roman territories Malta fell to the lot of Constantine. On the ruin of the empire, the Vandals

ſeized upon Sicily in 454, and next took poſſeſſion of this iſland, from which they were driven ten years afterward by the Goths. It was ſubjected to ſeveral other changes of maſters until the year 1090, when the Normans took it from the Arabs; it was then ſucceſſively under the dominion of Germany, when it was erected into a county and marquiſate, of France, of Arragon, and Caſtile, under the ſovereign of which it experienced great varieties of domination until the year 1428, when king Alphonſo, in conſideration of 30,000 florins, united the iſland and that of Goza for ever to Sicily.

Such were the changes which had taken place in the government of theſe two iſlands, when Charles V. added them to his vaſt domains: this politic prince conſidering their commanding ſtation, the power they gave him to ſecure the coaſt of Sicily, to threaten that of Africa, and to interrupt, at pleaſure, all commercial intercourſe between the two ſeas; but fearing at the ſame time that theſe important places might be wreſted from his ſucceſſors, who, being obliged to attend to the centre of their dominions, or to the oppoſite confines, might not be able to keep a force ſufficient for the defence of Malta and Goza; deſirous alſo to ſave the expence of 340,000 French livres, which his treaſury was obliged to furniſh for the maintenance of garriſons, reſolved to give them to ſome power too weak to be dangerous, although ſufficiently honourable to be reſpected, and with theſe views made choice of the Order of St. John of Jeruſalem, which having been driven from its principal place of reſidence, had been wandering on the coaſt of Italy; and in 1530 he eſtabliſhed the Knights as perpetual ſovereigns of the Iſlands of Malta and Goza, together with the city of Tripoly.

Knights of Malta. This celebrated order was founded as early as the year 1099, by a French knight, named Gérard, under the title of *Hoſpitalers of St. John of Jeruſalem*, for the purpoſe of ſerving and aſſiſting the poor, ſick, and wounded. In 1118, the order aſſumed a military form, and Raymond Dupuy was choſen firſt Grand Maſter. In 1291, the Knights were driven from Acre, their laſt hold in Paleſtine, and took refuge in Cyprus, where they were received by Henry II. king of that iſland, who gave them the town of Limiſſo. Here they remained till Auguſt 1310, when they took the town of Rhodes by ſtorm. From this time they aſſumed the appellation of the Knights of Rhodes. The iſland of Rhodes remained in their poſſeſſion until January 1. 1523, when their Grand Maſter, Villiers de L'iſle Adam, after a gallant and obſtinate defence, was compelled to ſurrender it to the Porte, and with all the ſurviving Knights, and four thouſand of the inhabitants, left the iſland.

iſland. Malta was then beſtowed on them by Charles V., and they retained poſſeſſion of it till 1798.

The order conſiſted of a Grand Maſter, and one thouſand Knights, from the different Roman Catholic ſtates of Europe. They were divided into *langues* or tongues, nine in number; viz. three in France, two in Spain, two in Germany, one in Portugal, and one in Italy. Theſe were again ſubdivided into commanderies, from which the Order received its annual revenues. The ſalary of the Grand Maſter amounted to 30,000*l.*, which, joined to thoſe of the different Knights, in addition to their private fortunes, diffuſed over this diminutive iſland an amazing quantity of money. Hence aroſe the magnificence of the edifices, both public and private, of the churches, of the fortifications; and hence, too, the aſtoniſhing and almoſt incredible population of the iſland.

Of the above number of Knights, five hundred were obliged to reſide in the iſland; the others were generally employed in the land or ſea ſervice of the nations to which they belonged, ſubject however to reſide, in their turn, at Malta. No perſon could be admitted as a Knight, without being able to trace a noble anceſtry for ſeven hundred years, and ſerving a certain number of campaigns againſt the Turks. It was alſo requiſite, to make a vow of chaſtity, and ſwear never to be at peace or in amity with the Mahometans, or other infidels. Such were the primitive regulations, but the order had begun evidently to decline; its navy was become inſignificant, its military ardour had ſubſided, and time had rendered animoſity againſt the Porte needleſs.

Conquest by the French. Under theſe circumſtances, in the year 1798, Bonaparte, on his expedition to Egypt, made a ſudden acquiſition of the iſland. The facility with which a place which art and nature had combined to render ſecure was ſurrendered, led to an opinion, which is ſtill entertained, that the occupation of it by the French was favoured by treachery. In September 1800, after a very long blockade, the miſeries of which the French troops endured with exemplary firmneſs, the iſland was ſurrendered to Great Britain. By the treaty of Amiens it was to have been reſtored, under certain guarantees, to the Knights of Malta, but ſeveral of the guaranteeing powers having refuſed the truſt, and it being evident that the then ruler of France waited only for the abſence of the Engliſh to regain this much deſired territory, a courſe of angry negotiation was purſued between Great Britain and France, which terminated in declarations of war; and Malta is now by treaty ſecured as part of the Britiſh dominions.

Appearance and Strength. To the ſouth, and toward

Tripoly, nothing is to be ſeen but ſhelves and rocks, without either creeks or ports; but to the eaſt is the port of *Marſa-Scala*, and toward the ſouth-weſt that of *Marſa-Sirocco*, capable of containing a great number of veſſels; farther on, and likewiſe between the ſouth and eaſt, are the two gulfs of Antifeya and Muſſaro; and at the very extremity of the iſland, toward the weſt, is a commodious cove, ſerving as a road for ſhips: this is named Melecca, and is ſeparated from Goza by a channel about four miles broad. The ſmall iſlands of Cumin and Cumino are in the middle of this channel.

The port of St. Paul is on the coaſt oppoſite Sicily, and is ſo called from a tradition that the veſſel in which St. Paul was ſent priſoner to Rome was wrecked there. St. George's Port, toward the north, is not far diſtant from that of St. Paul. Directly facing Cape Paſſaro are two conſiderable ports: that to the left is *Marſa Muſceit*, or Port *Muſſet*, in the midſt of which is a ſmall iſland; near which all veſſels from the Levant, or any other place ſuſpected of contagious diſeaſe, perform quarantine. The other is merely called *Marſa*, or the Great Port, and is ſituated to the eaſt. Theſe two are ſeparated by a point of land, at the extremity of which is Fort St. Elmo, ſerving to defend the entrance of both ports. There are two parallel points of land, ſhaped like fingers; theſe are in the great port, and project into the ſea, being much leſs broad than long: the caſtle of St. Angelo is built on the one neareſt the entrance of the port, and was the only fortreſs in the whole iſland when the Knights firſt took poſſeſſion of it. The Grand Maſter, L'iſle Adam, added baſtions, ramparts, and ditches, and made ciſterns, and built an arſenal and ſtore-houſes.

Il Borgo (or the Burgh), to the north of the caſtle of St. Angelo, is now ſeparated from it by a wet ditch. This was the original place of reſidence of the order of Malta, and where the Turks failed in their efforts againſt the Knights. It reſiſted all their aſſaults, and deſervedly gained the name of *Citta Vittorioſa*, or the Victorious City. The miniſter from the court of Rome, who has the title of Inquiſitor, has a palace in this place: but all the other foreign miniſters live in the city of *Valetta*; in which, during the reign of the laſt Grand Maſter, the Inquiſitor, by conſent of the Order, was likewiſe permitted to reſide.

On the other point of land, to the left, is the great port. A fort and burgh have been erected; and though in fact it is only a peninſula, it is called the *Iſland of La Sangle*, from the name of the Grand Maſter who fortified it. The inhabitants of this burgh, during the ſiege of Malta, reſiſted every bribe offered them by the Turks; and, continuing conſtantly faithful

to

to the Order, defended the place with ſo much valour, that it was named *Citta Invitta* (the Invincible City). The point of land on which the city La Sangle is built divides the Galley port from the French port. Fort St. Michael is on the ſide next the land, and defends the two ports of La Sangle.

Near the city La Sangle is the ſuburb *Burmola*, now called *Citta Conſpicua* (the Conſpicuous City). This is commanded by St. Margaret's Hill, on which is a fort of the ſame name. There is a fort called *La Cotoner*, conſiſting of a ſucceſſion of baſtions without any advanced works.

There are two forts on the point of land on each ſide of Fort St. Elmo: the one called *Ricaſoli*, the other, lately built on Point Dragut, bears the name of Fort *Tigné*.

The point of land on which St. Elmo is built, was formerly called *Sceb-e-ras*, ſignifying, in Arabic, a place elevated above another. It was alſo named *La Guardia*. The city *Valetta* is built on this ſpot; and in order to ſecure it ſtill more effectually on the land ſide, a ſuburb, ſurrounded by fortifications, has been ſince erected, to which is given the name of *La Floriana*.

Cities and Villages. The iſland of Malta contains two principal cities, and twenty-two villages, or *caſals*, a name derived from the Arabian word *rahal*, ſignifying *ſtation*; and which indicates the manner in which theſe villages have been compoſed by degrees, through the means of the ſtations, colonies, and meetings of labourers, who ſucceſſively built cabins, or houſes in the country, in order to be nearer their different occupations. There are ſeveral hamlets between theſe villages, and a great many country-houſes.

The *old* or *notable* city ſtill preſerves the name of *Mdina* among the inhabitants; this ſignifies city, and it was the only one at that time in the iſland. It is the ſeat of the biſhopric: and its moſt remarkable edifices are, the palace of the Grand Maſter, built on the ſite of a fort taken down in 1455, by command of King Alphonſo; and the Cathedral, erected on the foundation of a palace, which, according to ancient tradition, was inhabited by Publius, prince or *protos* of the iſland at the time of St. Paul's ſhipwreck. The body of the Cathedral has been rebuilt in a modern taſte, and is very little ornamented. The greateſt part of the pictures are by Matthias Preti. The old city had for governor a *hakem* or *podeſta*, choſen by the Grand Maſter out of the claſs of principal citizens. This governor bore the name of *Captain of the Rod*; becauſe the ſign of his juriſdiction was a rod. The catacombs in the old city have always been celebrated; and, indeed, with the greateſt juſtice. They are very extenſive; and contain

ſtreets in all directions, which are formed with ſuch regularity, that the place has acquired the title of ſubterraneous city. Near it is the Grotto of Saint Paul, a cave divided into three ſeparate parts by iron grates. The altar is in the part furtheſt from the entrance; in which is alſo a beautiful ſtatue of the Saint, in white marble, the work of Caffa. The ſecond reſembles the nave of a church, and is a rock where the vegetation is conſtant, yielding a peculiar ſort of earth, famous for the cure of fevers.

VALETTA. The firſt ſtone of this city, the capital of the iſland, was laid in 1566, and this ſpot particularly choſen on account of its elevated ſituation between the two great ports of the iſland. The whole being finiſhed, on May 18. 1571, the entire body of the Order quitted the Burgh, where they had reſided from their firſt arrival in Malta, and proceeded in a moſt ſolemn manner to their new habitation in the city Valetta.

Much leſs attention had been paid to the magnificence and convenience of the edifices within the walls, than to enſure ſafety by ſtrong fortifications. The only church at that time was the *Chapel of Victory*; built by La Valette in commemoration of the raiſing the ſiege, and in honour of the bleſſed Virgin. A piece of ground was given to every different langue for their reſpective Inns. The one belonging to the Engliſh, ſince ſucceeded by the Anglo-Bavarian, was on the ſpot now called *La Polveriſta*. A particular poſt was alſo aſſigned to each langue, to defend in caſe of attack. There are three gates to this city, *La Reale* (Royal), the *Marine*, and the gate towards *Marſa Muſceit*. The principal ſtreet reaches from the royal gate to the Caſtle of St. Elmo, and the others are built in a ſtraight line parallel to the former; the whole paved with flat ſquare ſtones. Beſide private ciſterns to every houſe, there are likewiſe public ones; together with a fountain, the ſource of which is in the ſouthern part of the iſland, but the water conveyed by an aqueduct, built at a conſiderable expence by the Grand Maſter Aloff de Vignacourt. The houſes are neat, and built of handſome ſtone; the roofs forming a flat terrace plaſtered with pozzolana, with pipes conducting to the ciſterns, by which means every drop of rain water is preſerved. Moſt of the houſes have a balcony advancing into the ſtreet, where the inhabitants paſs a great part of their time. The principal church is dedicated to St. John.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS. The public edifices in Malta conſiſt of the Palace of the Grand Maſter, the Hotels or Inns of the different langues, the Conſervatory, the Treaſury, the Univerſity, the Town-Hall, the Palace of Juſtice, the Hoſpital, and the Barracks, all of which are built with much ſimplicity. The front

front of the Provençal Inn, and that of the Conſervatory, are the moſt remarkable for their ſtyle of architecture. One part of the latter edifice ſerves for the Public Library; which uſeful eſtabliſhment was firſt inſtituted by the Bailli de Tencin, in 1760, who during his lifetime furniſhed it with nine thouſand ſeven hundred volumes, which he had collected at conſiderable expence.

The tour of the iſland affords many objects highly intereſting to literature and general curioſity, but which cannot be noticed here.

GOZA.

The Iſland of Goza, ſituated about five miles diſtant, has always been conſidered as an appendage to Malta, and followed its fate in all periods. It is about eight miles in length, and in breadth four. This iſland, although fertile, was not ſufficiently ſo to furniſh the whole of the inhabitants with corn; ſeven or eight thouſand ſalmes of which they were conſtantly obliged to purchaſe every year. The paſture-land is fine, and they fed great quantities of cattle for the uſe of Malta, with which there was a daily communication; five or ſix boats filled with proviſions going every morning to Valetta, and returning the ſame afternoon with all ſuch merchandize and eatables as were not to be found at Goza. The grapes of this iſland are particularly fine, and ſo highly eſteemed by the Malteſe, that they buy up the greateſt part for their own uſe. Corn and cotton are cultivated with great ſucceſs, and generally yield from ſixteen to eighteen for one. Oxen or aſſes are employed for ploughing the land; and, in ſome particular caſes, they dig a foot deep into the earth, in order to refreſh it. The ancient plough was made uſe of both in that iſland and in Sicily. The air is extremely wholeſome, and the country preſents a variety of agreeable proſpects. The two hills called *Nodar* and *Schiahrer* are ſurrounded by gardens watered by fountains, and are undoubtedly the pleaſanteſt in the iſland. There was a collegiate church in the caſtle, where the ſervice was performed by canons; likewiſe a priſon, and the governor's palace; the whole containing about two hundred inhabitants. There were three convents of friars in the iſland; the Auguſtins, Franciſcans, and Capuchins. Every caſal or village had its ſeparate pariſh; and in ſome of them were hermits, whoſe province it was to educate youth.

The governor of Goza was always a knight. The municipality conſiſted of four jurats; and there were three courts of

juſtice; one for the laity, another for the clergy, and a third for the inquiſition. The firſt tried all civil and criminal cauſes; the ſecond had juriſdiction of every thing relative to ſpiritual affairs; and the laſt (which conſiſted of only one canon) referred all cauſes to Malta which he could not immediately determine upon the ſpot. Goza contains only ſix caſals: *Garbo*, or *Gharb*; *Zebucco*, or *Zebug*; *Nadur*; *Quaccia*, or *Scicara*, or *Caccia*; *Zeuchia*, or *Scienquia*; and *Sannat*.

TRADE. Although theſe iſlands yield nothing that can render them of the leaſt importance as an exporting country; yet the local ſituation of Malta renders it a great acquiſition, both in a political and commercial point of view. Its poſition is important as an entrepôt for merchandize in time of war, and a moſt convenient ſtation for any naval force, which it may be found neceſſary to ſend to the Mediterranean. It has in this view been found of eminent importance in war: its value muſt be much diminiſhed in peace, but to what purpoſes it may be applied, the preſſure of neceſſity, and the activity of commercial enterprize, will ſpeedily diſcover.

POPULATION. By a cenſus taken in 1803, the population of the two iſlands was returned at 94,000 perſons, but ſince that time it is ſaid to have increaſed conſiderably.

HELIGOLAND.

THE laſt poſſeſſion of the Britiſh crown in Europe is Heligoland, the following account of which is taken entirely from Mr. Colquhoun:

This iſland is ſituated in the German Ocean, nearly oppoſite to the mouths of the river Eydir in Holſtein, the Elbe, and the Weſer. It is a barren rock, about nine miles in circumference. When the French government took poſſeſſion of the Hanſe towns of Hamburgh and Bremen, in 1807, it was captured from the Danes, and occupied by a Britiſh force, with the immediate view of making it a depôt for colonial produce and Britiſh manufactures, to be ſold to merchants and others on the adjacent continent, and thereby, as far as poſſible, to render abortive the decrees of the French uſurper.

For ſeveral years, vaſt quantities of merchandize found a ready ſale at this depôt, which became at length a very conſiderable commercial eſtabliſhment, where merchants from different parts of Great Britain, and alſo from the continent, had a temporary reſidence. But after the annexation of the Hanſe towns to France, a ſtricter guard was eſtabliſhed by the enemy, which conſiderably reduced the exportation to the oppoſite coaſt:

coaſt. By the late treaty of peace between Great Britain and Denmark, this country retains Heligoland in perpetuity.

It is inhabited by about 2000 Daniſh fiſhermen, who ſupport themſelves chiefly by wrecks, and by ſupplying the adjacent continental towns with fiſh. The republic of Hamburgh erected a light-houſe on the iſland, for the greater ſafety of veſſels entering the Elbe, which has been repaired by the Britiſh government at a conſiderable expence.

ASIA.

India. In deſcribing the ſettlements and colonies effected by Great Britain in this quarter of the globe, the eſtabliſhments in India firſt claim attention, both on account of their wealth and political importance, and the aſtoniſhing circumſtances under which ſuch an empire has been acquired, extended, and preſerved. In treating on this ſubject, it will be neceſſary to extract from recent authors ſome account of the origin of the Britiſh trade with India, the formation and growth of the Eaſt India Company, and the means taken for governing and ſecuring theſe vaſt and diſtant poſſeſſions.

The commerce of the weſtern parts of the world with the opulent and early civilized nations of the eaſt commenced at a very remote era, and may be traced in ſacred and profane hiſtory to the Sabæans, and other people of Arabia, the Egyptians, and the Phœnicians. When the growing power of the Romans had reduced Egypt to a province, the people of that country began a direct trade with India, which none of their anceſtors had ever attempted. Alexandria thereupon became the commercial capital of the whole Roman empire, and was ſcarcely inferior to the imperial city itſelf in population and opulence. In a few years after the commencement of the Indian voyages, the Egyptian creek navigators acquired a knowledge of the periodical regularity of the monſoons; the labour was thus abridged, and larger veſſels were employed in the trade, which continued to flouriſh as long as the Roman empire remained in vigour. A conſiderable trade was alſo carried on to Conſtantinople, by a conveyance comprehending land-carriage, river-navigation, and the navigation of the Euxine (or Black) Sea and the Caſpian. The conveyance by the Perſian Gulf and the Euphrates was alſo kept up; and Palmyra, by being an entrepôt in this trade, became, as its ruins teſtify, wealthy and magnificent.

After the fall of the Roman empire, the Arabians again became the firſt commercial people of the weſtern world, and, uniting

coaſt. By the late treaty of peace between Great Britain and Denmark, this country retains Heligoland in perpetuity.

It is inhabited by about 2000 Daniſh fiſhermen, who ſupport themſelves chiefly by wrecks, and by ſupplying the adjacent continental towns with fiſh. The republic of Hamburgh erected a light-houſe on the iſland, for the greater ſafety of veſſels entering the Elbe, which has been repaired by the Britiſh government at a conſiderable expence.

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India. In deſcribing the ſettlements and colonies effected by Great Britain in this quarter of the globe, the eſtabliſhments in India firſt claim attention, both on account of their wealth and political importance, and the aſtoniſhing circumſtances under which ſuch an empire has been acquired, extended, and preſerved. In treating on this ſubject, it will be neceſſary to extract from recent authors ſome account of the origin of the Britiſh trade with India, the formation and growth of the Eaſt India Company, and the means taken for governing and ſecuring theſe vaſt and diſtant poſſeſſions.

The commerce of the weſtern parts of the world with the opulent and early civilized nations of the eaſt commenced at a very remote era, and may be traced in ſacred and profane hiſtory to the Sabæans, and other people of Arabia, the Egyptians, and the Phœnicians. When the growing power of the Romans had reduced Egypt to a province, the people of that country began a direct trade with India, which none of their anceſtors had ever attempted. Alexandria thereupon became the commercial capital of the whole Roman empire, and was ſcarcely inferior to the imperial city itſelf in population and opulence. In a few years after the commencement of the Indian voyages, the Egyptian creek navigators acquired a knowledge of the periodical regularity of the monſoons; the labour was thus abridged, and larger veſſels were employed in the trade, which continued to flouriſh as long as the Roman empire remained in vigour. A conſiderable trade was alſo carried on to Conſtantinople, by a conveyance comprehending land-carriage, river-navigation, and the navigation of the Euxine (or Black) Sea and the Caſpian. The conveyance by the Perſian Gulf and the Euphrates was alſo kept up; and Palmyra, by being an entrepôt in this trade, became, as its ruins teſtify, wealthy and magnificent.

After the fall of the Roman empire, the Arabians again became the firſt commercial people of the weſtern world, and, uniting

uniting the zeal of a new religion with military ardour, commanded the whole extent of the Mediterranean, aſſumed the empire of the Indian ocean, and extended their commercial voyages far beyond the utmoſt limits of the navigation of their anceſtors. On almoſt every ſhore of that ocean, they either became the ruling people, or eſtabliſhed factories, and were thereby enabled to command the commerce of ſilks, precious ſtones, pearls, ſpices, and many other precious articles. The holy wars made the nations of Europe acquainted with and deſirous of theſe luxuries, and by degrees a ſcanty and circuitous commerce was eſtabliſhed with the Eaſt.

Discoveries and Trade of the Portuguese. The ſupplies which could be obtained by the tedious and expenſive proceſs of land-carriage were of little importance, compared with thoſe which afterward flowed in upon Europe when the paſſage by ſea became aſcertained and frequented. The firſt inſtrument, under the direction of Divine Providence, for bringing about this important change, was Henrique (or Henry), a younger ſon of Pedro, king of Portugal. This Prince, enlightened beyond the ſtandard of his times, delighted in aſtronomy, geography, navigation, and thoſe branches of mathematics which are ſubſervient to them. From 1412, until his death in 1463, ſhips were diſpatched to make diſcoveries on the weſt coaſt of Africa; but although each of theſe went further than thoſe which had preceded, yet no effectual diſcovery was made in the lifetime of Henry. Succeeding ſovereigns purſuing the ſame courſe of enterprize, Diaz, in 1486, paſſed the ſouthern extremity of Africa, which, on account of the ſtorms he had there encountered, he called *Cabo Tormentoſo* (the Stormy Cape); but king João II., when he heard of the diſcovery, gave it the more auſpicious name of *Cabo de Bõa Eſperança* (the Cape of Good Hope), which has ever ſince been uſed by all the nations of Europe.

The fortunate diſcovery of this paſſage enabled the Portugueſe greatly to extend their commercial views; and Columbus, purſuing the ſame projects in a different direction, having explored thoſe regions now known by the name of America and the Weſt Indies, the Pope, by a preſumptuous edict, iſſued to correct a very ignorant one, granted all new-found countries northward from the Canaries, to Spain, and all ſouthward from thoſe iſlands to Portugal. But this ſcheme of partition not being accepted, it was at laſt agreed, that the meridian of demarcation ſhould be removed two hundred and ſeventy leagues further weſt, and that all the countries diſcovered, or to be diſcovered, on the eaſt ſide of that line, ſhould belong to Portugal, and all on the weſt ſide of it, to Spain,

Spain, without conſidering how their pretenſions were to be regulated when their diſcoveries ſhould extend one hundred and eighty degrees eaſt or weſt of the meridian of partition, and interfere on the oppoſite ſide of the globe.

The Portugueſe long continued formidable in arms and proſperous in commerce; but their ambition tended toward a domineering ſupremacy in all the countries and ſeas of Africa and Aſia. Their trade centered at Antwerp, and totally deſtroyed that which Venice had before enjoyed as the general depôt of Indian produce. Hence a confederacy was formed againſt them by this republic, who inſtigated the ſultan of Egypt to arm againſt Portugal. The fleets of this nation, however, vanquiſhed thoſe which the confederates could bring to cope with them; and their troops, headed by Alfonſo Albuquerque, rapidly extended their conqueſts, influence, and power. Early in the ſixteenth century ſettlements were effected at Goa, Malacca, and Ceylon, and a trade eſtabliſhed with China, and in 1542 accident produced the diſcovery and facilitated the commerce with Japan. Still the tyranny and impolicy of the Portugueſe governors who ſucceeded Albuquerque rendered the dominion of the parent ſtate precarious; and while the power, conqueſts, and commerce of Portugal were widely extending, the cauſes were in embryo which were to produce diminution, diſaſter, and ruin. The hatred with which the tyranny, rapacity, and cruelty of theſe Europeans inſpired the natives produced continual wars and renewed confederacies. The eſtabliſhment of the Inquiſition at Goa alienated from them even thoſe whom a converſion to Chriſtianity had attached to their intereſts. The king of Ternate expelled them from all the Molucco iſlands. Malaccas was inveſted by a powerful army, led firſt by the king of Acheen, and afterwards by a female warrior, the queen of Japara. The ſettlements in Ceylon were already almoſt loſt in conſequence of an inſult offered to the religion of the natives. The Moors, and even the Hindoos, were now more expert than formerly in maritime affairs and naval warfare. They had procured artificers, who made artillery for them, and inſtructed them in the management of it. Their ſquadrons covered every part of the coaſt; and it was now not unuſual to ſee Portugueſe ſhips defeated and taken by the country cruiſers. The impolitic meaſure of dividing their Indian poſſeſſions into three governments alſo contributed to enfeeble the Portugueſe, by taking away the force which reſults from undivided counſels and an united impulſe. In this ſtate were they when the diſappearance of Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal, enabled Philip the Second to annex his dominions to the crown of Spain.

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This union did not contribute to the prosperity of the Portugueſe in India. The King of Spain conſidering America, which ſent him home cargoes of the precious metals, the territory of higheſt importance, was principally anxious to prevent the pecuniary loſs which he ſuſtained through the illicit trade, the piracy, and the numerous malverſations prevalent in India. For this purpoſe he eſtabliſhed in 1587 an Eaſt India Company, which, in conſideration of certain ſums annually paid, was to enjoy excluſive privileges; a meaſure extremely unpalatable to the European inhabitants of the Aſiatic continent, who all, without exception, built their hopes of fortune on the proſecution of ſome prohibited ſcheme of gain. Bigotry, the characteriſtic and curſe of Philip II., completed the diſtreſs of his Indian ſubjects. In 1594, an order arrived from the Pope and the Catholic King to convert the infidels by force. Such an order was in fact a commiſſion to murder and plunder; and the pagodas, or temples, hitherto the ſacred and inviolable depoſitories of the wealth of India, which even the ferocious bigotry of the Mahommedans had reſpected, were deſpoiled of the accumulated riches of a long ſucceſſion of ages. The natives with horror beheld their moſt ſacred rites trampled upon; and their minds were filled with deteſtation of the perpetrators of theſe daily atrocities. Nor was this new attempt at all acceptable to the Portugueſe ſubjects themſelves. They were now moſtly natives of the country of a mixed race, in which the Indian blood predominated; and being but nominally Portugueſe and Chriſtians, they cared little for the country or the religion of their forefathers. The ſame perſecuting ſpirit occaſioned the inſurrection of the people of the Netherlands, in Europe, who threw off the yoke of Spain, and, aided by Queen Elizabeth, became united and independent ſtates. To puniſh theſe, whom he conſidered as his rebellious ſubjects, King Philip prohibited their trade to Liſbon for the commodities of India, and ſeized their ſhips; but the Dutch ſpeedily avenged themſelves by fitting out four veſſels for India direct, which arrived at Java in 1595, and theſe being followed in 1602 by the firſt Engliſh ſhips under Captain Lancaſter, a foundation was laid for a new political and commercial power in Aſia, which ſoon exceeded, and finally ſuppreſſed that of Portugal.

The perſevering hoſtility and active commercial enterpriſe of the Dutch continued to impede the trade of Portugal both in Europe and India, and to extend the influence and commerce of the United States, until the year 1640, when the Portugueſe, by a well-concerted plan, ſeparated their country from the dominion of Spain, and placed the ſceptre in the hands of

the Duke of Braganza, by the title of John the fourth. The new government directed its attention to India; but rapine, murder, and the horrible exceſſes of a bigotted and greedy adminiſtration had alienated the hearts of the natives, and the aſcendency of other nations had become too great for the power of Portugal to ſhake. After ſeveral unſucceſsful experiments, a limited commerce was eſtabliſhed in 1731; in 1733, the Inquiſition at Goa was aboliſhed, and for the empty though ſonorous title of Viceroy that of Captain-General was ſubſtituted; but their affairs never recovered. Of all their wide-ſpread dominions in the Oriental ſeas, there remain now only a few ſettlements of very little value on the eaſt coaſt of Africa; and on the continent of Hindoſtan they poſſeſs Diu, and ſome poſts and factories of inferior importance in the gulf of Cambay, together with Goa, now as formerly the capital of the Portugueſe dominions in India. They ſtill have permiſſion to reſide at their ſettlement at Macao, near the coaſt of China, but ſo much under the controul of the Chineſe, that they may be reckoned ſubjects of that empire.

Commerce of the Dutch with India. Religious perſecution, as already has been mentioned, drove the people of the Netherlands into hoſtility, and occaſioned their ſeparation from the crown of Spain; and the ſeizure of their ſhips at Liſbon urged them to attempt a direct intercourſe with India. After ſome ineffectual attempts at the diſcovery of a northern paſſage, ſome merchants at Amſterdam formed themſelves into a company, and beginning only with a capital of 70,000 gilders, ſent in 1595 four ſhips carrying ſixty-two guns and two hundred and eighty-eight mariners, under the direction of Cornelius Houtman, to begin a new commerce in this remote region. Although ſome diſaſters attended this firſt eſſay, yet the balance of advantage was ſufficiently alluring to keep alive the ſpirit of commercial enterprize. Several companies were formed; the hatred of the natives, juſtly excited againſt their Spaniſh and Portugueſe oppreſſors, favoured their enterprizes; and in 1602 the States-General terminated the commercial rivalſhip which had impeded full ſucceſs, by granting a charter which conſolidated the ſeveral companies, ſecured to them for the term of twenty-one years the excluſive privilege of trading to India, and inveſted them with power to commiſſion governors and other officers, build forts, maintain garriſons, and make war and peace in all countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. This company formed itſelf into ſix chambers, named after the ſix principal cities where companies had before been formed; their capital was 6,459,840 florins, and their directors ſixty-five, each city ſupplying a number proportioned to the amount

amount of its capital ſubſcribed. This ſubſcription brought a great deal of money into Holland from other countries, and alſo induced many opulent merchants of the Spaniſh provinces in the Netherlands, and of other places, to remove with their effects into the Dutch provinces, which thus received a great acceſſion of valuable ſubjects and capital.

A fleet of fourteen large ſhips was equipped to ſuſtain the intereſts of this company: they ſailed under the command of Admiral Waerwyk in June 1602, and notwithſtanding the oppoſition of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, formed eſtabliſhments in the Molucca Iſlands, and ſupplanted the Portugueſe in the commerce of Japan. In theſe operations they were much aſſiſted by the Engliſh, their benefactors and allies in Europe, whoſe firſt fleet of five ſhips appeared in this part of the world in 1602.

Commercial rivalry ſoon deſtroyed the good underſtanding between the two companies; which it was vainly endeavoured to reſtore by a treaty executed in Europe. The Dutch drove the Engliſh out of the iſlands of Lantore and Pula Roon with circumſtances of horrid barbarity; and in February, 1623, they maſſacred all the Engliſh in Amboyna with diabolical tortures, on the incredible pretence, that a ſmall handful of men, not exceeding twenty, had conſpired to expel them from four ſtrong forts, garriſoned by five or ſix hundred ſoldiers. In January, 1619, the Engliſh expelled the Dutch from Jacatra, a town in Java, in which both nations had factories; but the Dutch ſoon returned in greater force, and took the place from the natives, to whom the Engliſh had reſigned it. Koen, the Dutch commander, immediately laid the foundation of a regular fortified city, which he called Batavia, and appointed it to be the capital of the Company's territories and ſettlements in India, inſtead of Amboyna.

In 1622, the charter of the Dutch company was renewed, and they continued generally proſperous, although occaſionally checked and impeded by quarrels, ariſing from their pride and avarice. Upon the revolution in Portugal in 1640, the new King, John IV., entered into an alliance with the Dutch, they being, as well as himſelf, at war with Spain; and it was agreed that both powers ſhould retain the territories they then poſſeſſed. But the inhabitants of Brazil, who, as ſubjects of Spain, had been invaded by the Dutch, and had lived ſome time under their dominion, in a few years expelled them, and transferred their allegiance to the King of Portugal, their natural and legitimate ſovereign. In this revolt they were aſſiſted by many of the Dutch inhabitants, who were rendered uneaſy by the exceſſive parſimony of the Weſt India Com-

pany in their eſtabliſhments. The loſs of Brazil, while it ruined the Dutch Weſt India Company, was one of the many events which contributed to aggrandize the Eaſt India Company; for the Court of Portugal, thenceforth turning their attention to that country, neglected their dominions in the Eaſt at the very time when they ſtood moſt in need of ſupport. The Dutch, on the revolt of Brazil, vigorouſly attacked the Portugueſe ſettlements in India. In 1641 they obtained poſſeſſion of the important city of Malacca, eſteemed the key of the navigation of the Indian ſeas, by means of an agreement with the Portugueſe governor, who was to receive 80,000 dollars as the reward of his treachery, but was more deſervedly put to death by thoſe in whoſe favour he had renounced his loyalty and his honour.

Renewing their charters from time to time, the Dutch Eaſt India Company continued to extend their commerce and their eſtabliſhments. In 1650, they began to form their ſettlement at the Cape of Good Hope. In 1656, they ſent an expenſive and unſucceſsful embaſſy to China. In 1658, after a ſtruggle of twenty years againſt the natives and the Portugueſe, they eſtabliſhed themſelves ſecurely in Ceylon. In 1660, they deſtroyed a Portugueſe fleet in the harbour of Macaſſar, taking only one ſhip, which was ſo rich a prize, as not only to defray the charges of the expedition, but to indemnify them for their miſſion to China; an indemnity the more agreeable, as the valuable property on board the fleet was underſtood to belong to the Jeſuits, to whoſe intrigues at the court of Canton they attributed their failure. They moreover obliged the King of Macaſſar to ſurrender to them the port and fortreſs of Jompandam, to expel the Portugueſe, and to become bound never to admit any other Europeans than themſelves to trade in his dominions.

As a contraſt to theſe ſucceſſes, the Dutch were, in 1661, expelled from their valuable ſettlement in the iſland of Tywan, or Formoſa, a place of importance, from the facilities it afforded to their commerce with Japan. They made ſeveral attempts to regain it, but without effect.

Notwithſtanding this reverſe, they aſſiduouſly purſued their plans of aggrandizement, and of excluding all other Europeans from the commerce of India. In 1663 they ſent a fleet to the coaſt of Malabar, under Commodore Goen, who took Caulan, Cananore, and Cochin from the Portugueſe. On the arrival of a reinforcement from Batavia, the Rajah of Porca requeſted to be permitted to become the vaſſal of the Company, on paying the ſame tribute that he had paid Portugal. Cranganore ſubmitted; and the Zamorin of Calicut, the

the King of Cochin, and ſome other princes of the coaſt, were admitted to be the Company's allies. Thus were the Portugueſe in one ſeaſon expelled from the coaſt of Malabar, and thus were the ſovereignty of a great part, and the trade of the whole, transferred to the Dutch. In the end of the year 1666, the Governor-General of Batavia, alleging ſome cauſe of complaint againſt the King of Macaſſar, ſent a fleet againſt him. The Dutch, after plundering the country, ſailed for Boutan, which was then invaded by the army and fleet of Macaſſar; and having defeated them, they ſent 5,500 of the priſoners to cultivate a deſert iſland, made ſlaves of 400, and made a preſent of 5,000 to the Rajah of Palacca, their ally. They finally conquered the whole country of Macaſſar, with the neighbouring ſtates; by which the Engliſh and Portugueſe were not only completely excluded from reſiding in thoſe territories, but alſo from obtaining the ſpices brought from the iſlands which produce them to Macaſſar and the neighbouring ports, where they uſed to find opportunities of purchaſing them; and thus was the monopoly of that precious merchandize completely ſecured to the Dutch Company.

In 1664, on an application for a renewal of their charter, the company gave a moſt gratifying detail of their eſtabliſhments, ſettlements, and commerce, ſhewing a very flattering picture of proſperity. Some of the moſt important particulars are as follow: *Amboyna*, with its ſubordinate iſlands, which ſupply the whole world with cloves. The *Banda Iſlands*, which produce nutmegs and mace. *Ternate* and the other *Molucco Iſlands*, *Macaſſar* and *Manado*. In *Sumatra* it was ſaid the company poſſeſs *Jamby*, *Patimbuan*, and *Andrigiri*. They have a contract for the ſole purchaſe of all the pepper produced on the weſt ſide of the iſland. From *Japan* they receive only ſilver and copper, the emperor having prohibited the exportation of gold. It is expected that the Emperor of China will permit the company to have a free trade. In *Coromandel* the company have a very important trade in cotton goods, which are ſold partly in India and partly in Europe. In *Pegu* there are poſts at *Ava* and *Serian*. In *Bengal* the company have factories at *Hooghly*, *Coſſimbazar*, *Dacca*, *Patna*, *Pipilipatan*, &c. and drive a great trade in ſilk goods, cotton goods, ſaltpetre, ſugar, muſk, rice, butter, &c. *Ceylon* is one of the moſt valuable poſſeſſions of the company. It produces the beſt cinnamon, elephants of a ſuperior quality, areka, &c. The company have 2,500 ſoldiers in garriſon at *Columbo*, *Punta de Gallo*, *Negumbo*, *Manar*, and *Jafnapatam*. In *Malabar* the company have *Cochin*, *Cranganore*, *Coulan*, and *Cananore*, all taken from the Portugueſe. In *Perſia* there is an advantageous trade, the chief ſeat of which is at *Gambroon*,

Gambroon, with a dependant poſt at *Iſpahan*. The ſettlement at the *Cape of Good Hope* is merely intended as a place of refreſhment for the ſhips on their outward and homeward voyages; and it abundantly anſwers that purpoſe. The iſland of *Mauritius* was ſome time ago abandoned, but the company have lately ſent people to re-occupy it.

Beſide theſe, they had factories and mercantile eſtabliſhments at ſeveral other places, and their ſtatement fully ſhewed their complete triumph over the only powers who could be conſidered in competition with them, Portugal and England.

Purſuing their ſyſtem of excluſion, they took advantage of a diſputed ſucceſſion to the throne of Java, and in 1683, acting as allies of one of the competitors, took poſſeſſion of Bantam, and plundered the Engliſh and Daniſh factories; in the former of which they found gold, jewels, and other property, to a vaſt amount. They alſo recommended a Dutch prime miniſter to the king their ally, and never reſted till they got the Engliſh and Danes driven out of the country, after which they had all the pepper in the iſland upon their own terms. Some ſubſequent inſurrections afforded a pretence for augmenting the Dutch guards, and building a fort for their reſidence, by which the harbour and the city were completely commanded. They alſo took the French ſettlement of Pondicherry, on the 6th of September, 1693, and immediately fortified it in the ſtrongeſt manner; but, quite contrary to their expectation, they were obliged to reſtore it, with all its improvements, by the treaty of Ryſwick in 1697.

For many ſucceeding years, the annals of the Dutch in India preſent little that is intereſting. Their tyranny and encroachments occaſioned inſurrections among the natives, and wars which were conducted with various ſucceſs. The altered taſte of European nations rendered ſpices leſs valuable than they had been, and the growing power and extended enterprizes, both in commerce and war, of England and France, reduced the importance of the Hollanders to a low ebb. In 1775 the charter of their company was allowed to expire. Their trade had been for ſome time in a declining ſtate, which had obliged them to reduce their dividends from twenty to fifteen, and afterwards to twelve and a half per cent.; they were unable, or at leaſt not willing, to pay ſo large a premium as they had uſually done for the renewal of their privilege, and the States-General granted it for thirty years on a payment of two millions of florins, and 360,000 florins annually.

The Dutch having joined the French and Spaniards in the American war, their property in India ſuffered ſeverely. In 1781 Commodore Johnſtone took and deſtroyed five of their

homeward and one of their outward-bound ſhips. In November Sir Edward Hughes and Sir Hector Munro took Negapatan, and thence proceeded to Ceylon, where they made themſelves maſters of Trincomalee.

The firſt war of the French Revolution was ſtill more diſaſtrous. In Auguſt, 1795, the important ſtation of Malacca was captured by the Britiſh forces; and in the following month General Clarke and Admiral Elphinſtone reduced the colony at the Cape of Good Hope. Soon after, all the Dutch forts and territories in Ceylon were alſo captured by the Britiſh forces. In the beginning of 1796 Admiral Rainier took poſſeſſion of the two governments of Amboyna and Banda. During the ceſſation of hoſtilities, which took place in October, 1801, all their oriental ſettlements were reſtored except Ceylon; but at the renovation of the war in 1803 they were all retaken.

Having thus ſhewn the origin, progreſs, and preſent ſtate of two powers, the earlieſt and moſt formidable of thoſe who have attempted to form commercial eſtabliſhments in India, it is not conſidered neceſſary to take a view of the tranſactions of other ſtates which were of leſs conſiderable importance. Mr. Macpherſon, from whoſe Hiſtory of the Commerce with India the above particulars are derived, has alſo given an account of the commercial proceedings of the Danes, the Oſtend company, the Swedes, the Imperial Company, and the Spaniards, but theſe are too remote or too minute for this work. The eſtabliſhment of the French, although more recent than that of the Engliſh, demands ſome notice as to its origin, but the frequent colliſions of the two countries in later times will render a ſeparate view of this part of the ſubject unneceſſary.

Commerce of the French with India. Although the French, as an opulent and luxurious nation, were great conſumers of the ſpices and other delicacies procured from India, they did not, ſo early as ſome other nations, effect a regular commerce with that country. In 1503, the merchants of Rouen fitted out a ſmall ſquadron which was unſucceſsful, and there are other accounts of commercial enterprizes during the early part of the ſixteenth century; but they are given on doubtful authority, and if they ever exiſted, the ſpirit which excited them was extinct before the year 1537, nor could it be revived by proclamations which were iſſued in that year, and in 1543 by Francis the Firſt.

In May, 1601, the fury of religious warfare having ſomewhat relented, an aſſociation of merchants fitted out two ſhips at Saint Malo for India, under the command of the Sieur Bardaliere. They arrived in the following February at Madagaſcar, where they remained till May; and in July they ſuffered ſhipwreck

wreck among the Maldives, a long chain of many thouſands of ſmall iſlands, extending north and ſouth from the equator, which produce ſcarcely any article of commercial value. Nearly about the ſame time that Bardaliere ſailed from Saint Malo, Girard, a Flemiſh navigator, who had been in India on board a Dutch ſhip, made an offer of his knowledge and ſervices to ſome French merchants, who, upon his ſuggeſtion, entered into an aſſociation for proſecuting the Eaſt India trade. In 1604 Henry IV. incorporated them by a charter, with excluſive privilege of trading to India for fifteen years; and they were to be exempted from duties on goods imported in their firſt two voyages.

This charter producing no commercial effort on the part of the company, ſome merchants of Rouen propoſed to carry on the trade, and after ſome oppoſition were incorporated with the company in 1615, and denominated the Molucca Company, or the Montmorenci Fleet. They ſent out two ſhips, and although obliged to ſell one, made with the other a profitable voyage. This, and ſimilar feeble attempts, were the only exertions made by France till the year 1664, when Colbert formed the famous Eaſt India Company, with an excluſive privilege for fifty years, and a ſtock of fifteen million livres, (625,000*l.*)

Every encouragement was afforded to this project. The king ſent a hundred and nineteen circular letters to the magiſtrates of the various towns, and invited all his ſubjects, without diſtinction, to ſubſcribe to the Company's ſtock. The nobles were allured by the proſpect of gain, and an aſſurance that their engaging as partners in this trade ſhould be no derogation from their dignity. Honours and hereditary titles were alſo promiſed to thoſe who ſhould diſtinguiſh themſelves in promoting the proſperity of the company. Foreigners, ſubſcribing twenty thouſand livres, were declared denizens of the kingdom; and officers of the army, ſubſcribing the ſame ſum, were allowed to be abſent from their regiments without ſtoppage of pay or promotion. The ſovereignty of the great iſland of Madagaſcar was conveyed to them as a dependence of the crown of France, together with the power of appointing civil and military officers in all their ſettlements, ſending embaſſadors in the king's name to the princes of India, and making treaties with them. The king engaged to protect their eſtabliſhments by force of arms, and to furniſh ſufficient convoys for their outward and homeward fleets. He alſo engaged to pay them a premium of fifty livres for every ton of merchandize exported, and ſeventy-five livres for every ton imported by them, and to exempt all ſtores neceſſary for building, equipping, and victualling, their veſſels, from paying duties of any kind

outward or inward. The company were allowed to export gold and ſilver notwithſtanding the law. Their goods imported and conſumed in France were charged with only half the duties impoſed on ſimilar articles; and thoſe ſent by them to foreign countries, and to the privileged provinces, were entirely exempted. The king engaged to lend them the fifth part of the ſum neceſſary for the firſt three voyages, and to allow the money to remain in their hands ten years without intereſt.

Four veſſels were ſent out in 1665 with all the apparent means of making a ſtrong ſettlement, but the conduct of the people was ſo fooliſh and atrocious, that, in the end, they were all maſſacred by the natives of Madagaſcar, except a ſmall number who made their eſcape to the iſland of Maſcarenhas, ſince called Bourbon. The company alſo eſtabliſhed a principal factory at Surat, with ſeveral poſts on the coaſt of Malabar ſubſidiary to it; but it was not long before they abandoned their ſtation at Surat without paying their debts. They obtained two poſts in the kingdom of Siam, attempted to ſettle a poſt in Tonquin, and began a trade with Cochin-China, but met with no ſucceſs in any of thoſe countries, nor in ſeveral other places where they attempted to ſettle.

They were reduced to great difficulties by the perſevering hoſtility of the Dutch; but at length, in 1672, M. Martin, their Governor, purchaſed from the King of Viſiapour a village upon the coaſt called Pondicherry, with a ſmall adjacent diſtrict, where he ſettled with the remainder of the French forces. Even this refuge was regarded with envy by the Dutch, who after failing in an attempt to induce a native prince to ſeize it, gained it by force, but reſigned it again by treaty in 1697.

Struggling againſt great difficulties of every kind, the French Eaſt India Company dragged on a feeble exiſtence for ſeveral years, occaſionally licenſing other adventurers to trade within the limits of their charter, in conſideration of receiving a ſmall per centage on their returns, until the year 1708, when, by permiſſion of government, they licenſed ſome merchants of Saint Malo to ſend their own ſhips to India, on condition that the company ſhould receive a duty of fifteen per cent. upon their returns, and ſome other advantages. Scarcely any point in hiſtory has been recorded with more contradictory aſſertions than the ſucceſs of the Malouin merchants in their Eaſt India voyages. The veſſels intended for this trade, being loaded with goods proper for the Spaniſh colonies, after making ſome ſtay at Brazil, proceeded round Cape Horn and traded upon the coaſts of Chili and Peru, receiving ſilver in exchange for their goods. Thence they ſtretched acroſs the Pacific Ocean, and after touching for refreſhments at the Ladrones Iſlands, proceeded

ceeded to the coaſt of China, and traded at Emouy, where the port charges were very moderate, and they were at liberty to ſail when they pleaſed; advantages not to be found at Canton, which is now the only Chineſe port in which Europeans are admitted. They then paſſed the Cape of Good Hope and ſteered for the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where they alſo carried on a profitable trade, and thence returned to France. Theſe voyages generally took up from three to five years, and the profits made in them ſometimes amounted to *fifteen hundred per cent.* upon the original coſt. The Malouins continued theſe voyages till 1719; but their neglect of the India trade, for which alone they were licenſed, obliged the people of France to purchaſe nine-tenths of the India goods required for their internal conſumption from foreigners; and if Melon, who publiſhed a political eſſay on commerce at Paris in 1736, was well informed, their ſales of India goods never amounted to two millions of livres in any year, which could ſcarcely equal a tenth part of the quantity needed for the conſumption of all France. This trade is ſaid to have been conducted by an aſſociation of merchants, who contributed a capital of four millions of livres; ſo it was ſtill the trade of a very conſiderable company.

While the Malouins were thus circumnavigating the globe, a new company was eſtabliſhed by a royal arret, dated in February, 1713, for trading to China, unconnected with the Eaſt India Company, or the aſſociates of St. Malo, and the duration of their privilege was to be fifty years. The only buſineſs they tranſacted was ſending out two ſhips, which, in 1718, returned with cargoes, not to France, but to Oſtend and Genoa. In 1719 this China company was incorporated with the great company of the weſt.

In 1714, when the Eaſt India Company had languiſhed out half a century without having got beyond the debility of infancy, with their capital exhauſted, and a debt of ten millions of livres, they obtained a prolongation of their excluſive privilege for ten years. Before the expiration of this term, the company was ſwallowed up in the grand and well-known ſcheme, or as he called it, ſyſtem, of John Law. In unravelling, by patient inveſtigation, and in remedying by arbitrary edicts, the failures and miſchiefs of this unprincipled impoſture, the affairs of the Eaſt India Company were thus arranged. The ſhares, which had been extended to 600,000, repreſenting three millions of livres, were finally reduced to 56,000, without any compenſation to the numerous ſtock-holders, whoſe property was thus annihilated. The excluſive privilege of providing all France with tobacco had been farmed to the company ſoon after their eſtabliſhment, but afterward reſumed by the king, on finding that it was ne-

glected by them. He now reſtored the farm to them as a compenſation for money due; at the ſame time he ceded to them, inſtead of payment of another debt, the domain of the weſt, they taking upon them the charge of ſupporting the civil and military eſtabliſhments. The king alſo, underſtanding that the company's commerce was increaſing, eſtabliſhed regulations for their ſhares and dividends, and appointed their council, with Cardinal Du Bois for their preſident, who ſhould hold their meetings at the India Houſe in Paris. He ſoon after gave them the excluſive ſale of coffee, from the profits of which, and tobacco, he directed them to make a dividend of 150 livres annually upon every ſhare, independent of what they might gain by their foreign commerce. In February, 1724, he moreover gave them the privilege of making lotteries, with prizes of life annuities or ſhares of their ſtock.

In June, 1725, Louis XV. confirmed to the company, for ever, their privilege of excluſive trade in ſlaves, gold duſt, &c. from Cape Blanco along the coaſt of Africa to the Cape of Good Hope, and the ſole trade of every kind from that Cape eaſtward to Cape Horn, including all the coaſts and iſlands of the Indian and Pacific Oceans, together with the property of Louiſiana, the beaver trade of Canada, and the commerce of the coaſt of Barbary; in ſhort, almoſt the whole world except Europe. He alſo confirmed their excluſive ſale of tobacco and coffee, reſerving, with reſpect to the latter, the privilege of the city of Marſeilles, and binding them never to raiſe the price. The king commanded them never to interfere with matters of finance; and he revoked the grant of the domain of the weſt and the privilege of lotteries. He alſo eſtabliſhed many regulations reſpecting their ſtock, dividends, meetings, and other matters.

In the ſame month the king, by another edict, gave them a diſcharge of all demands on account of the Royal Bank; and cancelled many intricate old accounts. In order to conceal the names of all concerned, and as much as poſſible to draw the veil of oblivion over the national phrenzy, he ordered that all papers and accounts belonging to the company, and not relating to commerce, ſhould be burnt.

It was only after the company of the Indies were delivered, though with the loſs of almoſt their whole capital, from all connection with financial legerdemain, that they could begin to be truly conſidered as a commercial company. They made ſome efforts to cultivate Louiſiana; and in 1722 New Orleans, which had been founded in 1717, and had hitherto been no more than a petty village, was enlarged, and made the capital of the province. Attention was alſo given to the other nu-

merous branches of commerce comprehended in their privilege; and in 1725 there belonged to them 125 veſſels of various kinds; but many of them very ſmall. It might be ſuppoſed that the company poſſeſſed a redundance of capital about this time, as they eſtabliſhed a diſcount office (*caiſſe d'eſcompte*) for the accommodation of the merchants of Paris and the public in 1727, which was continued till 1759, and is ſaid to have been ſo prudently conducted by the ſyndics and directors of the company, that in all that number of years the only loſs they ſuſtained was one bill of 4,000 livres.

They ſeem not to have been equally fortunate in all the other branches of their trade; or probably they became ſenſible that they had undertaken more buſineſs than it was poſſible to manage to advantage; for in 1730, they begged of the king to accept their reſignation of the excluſive trade of Barbary. He alſo reſumed the farm of tobacco, reſerving to them an annual revenue of eight millions payable out of it. In the following year, they prevailed on the king to take the province of Louiſiana off their hands, which coſt them much ſolicitation, beſides paying 1,450,000 livres for the favour.

They retained their beaver-trade in Canada, till that country fell under the dominion of Great Britain; and they retained the ſlave-trade on the coaſt of Africa till 1741, although they ſuſtained very great loſſes by furniſhing ſlaves to the coloniſts in America and the Weſt Indies upon credit. They alſo peopled the Iſles of France and Bourbon, and rendered them valuable poſſeſſions. Still their principal object was the Eaſt India trade; Pondicherry, the ſeat of the governor-general of their ſettlements, became a large, regular, and beautiful city, containing 70,000 inhabitants, moſtly natives. Under the adminiſtration of Orry in France, and of Dumas, La Bourdonnais, Buſſy, and Dupleix, their affairs proſpered exceedingly, and they obtained conſiderable territorial poſſeſſions on the coaſt of India. Their trade was carried on to ſuch an extent, and for ſome time with ſuch brilliant ſucceſs, as to excite the jealouſy of the Engliſh and Dutch companies. In 1734, their ſales at L'Orient amounted to 18,000,000 of livres; in 1740 they roſe to 22,000,000: in 1754 they reached 36,000,000; after which they were depreſſed by the war which then began.

At this period we leave the affairs of the French Eaſt India Company, as their ſubſequent hiſtory is comprized in that of the Engliſh.

COMMERCE OF THE ENGLISH WITH INDIA. Although the Engliſh were only the third European nation, in order of time, who effectually engaged in the commerce of India, they were next to the Portugueſe in perceiving the importance of conducting

the valuable trade with that country entirely by ſea. As the great objects of the Portugueſe were to bring home their India goods at a lighter expenſe of carriage than the Venetians paid upon theirs, and to avoid the dangers and arbitrary impoſitions to which traders are expoſed in traverſing the territories of a great number of deſpotic ſovereigns, ſo the Engliſh propoſed to ſearch for a route, which ſhould be ſhorter, and conſequently coſt leſs time and money, than that which the Portugueſe had ſo long been labouring to diſcover. For this purpoſe, John Cabot ſailed in May, 1497, with two ſhips, for the purpoſe of diſcovering a weſtern paſſage to India. His ſon, Sebaſtian, inheriting his father's belief of the poſſibility of accompliſhing a paſſage to India by a ſhorter navigation than doubling the ſouthern extremity of Africa, perſuaded a number of merchants, with whom ſeveral noblemen of the court alſo joined, to contribute a capital of 6,000*l.*, in ſhares of 25*l.* each, for the purpoſe of proſecuting the diſcovery in the north part of the world, and laying in a cargo of ſuch goods as they thought might be ſuitable for the countries they expected to arrive at. They obtained a charter on the ninth of May, 1553, in virtue of which three ſhips, whoſe united capacity was only 370 tons, ſailed under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, as admiral, Captain Richard Chancellor, and Cornelius Durfoorth. Sir Hugh, with his whole ſhip's company, was frozen to death in the Northern Ocean, near the coaſt of Lapland. Captain Chancellor got into the harbour of Saint Nicolas at the mouth of the River Dwina, where Archangel was afterward built. Thence he travelled to the court of Ivan Baſilowitz, the Grand Duke, Czar or Emperor, of Ruſſia, who granted many commercial privileges to the Engliſh, and ſo founded the Ruſſia Company. A ſubſequent voyage gave riſe to the Hudſon's Bay Company.

The hope of diſcovering a northern paſſage is now ſuppoſed to be finally extinguiſhed by the travels of Hearne and Mackenzie, who are ſaid to have proceeded by land over the very ſpace which navigators had imagined that ice alone prevented them from paſſing by ſea. The ill ſucceſs of adventurers in the 16th century, although it did not demonſtrate the impracticability of their attempt, ſuſpended its progreſs, and new means were deviſed for a trade with India. The firſt effort was made by the Turkey Company, who, aided by letters from Queen Elizabeth, inſuring the friendſhip of ſeveral Oriental princes, made an overland journey from Tripoli to India, which began in 1583, and did not terminate until 1591.

In this interval the diſcoveries of Sir Francis Drake had afforded new information reſpecting the navigation to India. The Engliſh had long obtained their ſpices from the Portugueſe;

gueſe; but when the war with Spain, in the latter part of the ſixteenth century, terminated all intercourſe between England and Portugal, which was then annexed to Spain; and when the Dutch, taking advantage of that circumſtance, raiſed the price of pepper to nearly thrice its exiſting coſt, the merchants of London reſolved to renew their endeavours to obtain a ſhare of the rich trade of India.

Formation of the East India Company. For this purpoſe, Mr. Mildenhall, a merchant of London, was, in 1599, deputed to the court of the Great Mogul, at Agra, which he did not reach till 1603: and, after a prodigious waſte of time and money, occaſioned by the machinations of ſome Jeſuits reſiding in Agra, and two Italian merchants (moſt probably Venetians), he obtained, in 1606, from the Mogul, an ample grant of commercial privileges for the Engliſh.

In the mean time, the merchants were aſſiduouſly employed in concerting meaſures for the eſtabliſhment of a company for the Eaſt India trade, independent of the Turkey trade: and on the 22d of September, 1599, the Lord Mayor of London, moſt of the aldermen, and other principal merchants of the city, to the number of one hundred and one, aſſembled at Founders-Hall, and formed an aſſociation for trading to India, for which they ſubſcribed a capital of 30,133*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

After ſome delays, occaſioned by the ſtate of politics, Queen Elizabeth, on the 31ſt day of December, 1600, granted a charter to a great number of gentlemen therein named, conſtituting them "one bodie corporate and politique indeed, by "the name of the Governour and Company of Merchants of "London trading into the Eaſt Indies," with ſucceſſion, the power to purchaſe lands (without any limitation), to ſue and be ſued, and to have a common ſeal, with the excluſive privilege of trading during fifteen years, reckoning from Chriſtmas, 1600, to all parts of Aſia, Africa, and America, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, eaſtward to the Straits of Magellan, except ſuch countries or ports as may be in the actual poſſeſſion of any Chriſtian prince in amity with the Queen. If the company's privileges were found by experience to be prejudicial to the realm, the Queen might revoke the charter, upon giving two years' notice; and, if the trade ſhould be found beneficial to the realm after the trial of fifteen years, new letters patent ſhould be granted for the ſame term.

Under this charter, with a capital nominally 72,000*l.*, but really 68,373*l.*, four ſhips were equipped, the beſt in England; the largeſt was of 600, the ſmalleſt of 240, and they carried altogether 1400 tons, and 480 men. With theſe and other veſſels, the Company made in thirteen years twelve voyages, with

with diverſity of ſucceſs, but with an average profit of one hundred and thirty-eight per cent. on the whole.

Up to this time, the ſtock had been divided at the end of each voyage, and a freſh ſubſcription entered into for a new undertaking, to which each member advanced as much or as little as he thought fit, or abſtained altogether; but the inconvenience of this ſyſtem being now fully apparent, a ſubſcription was opened in 1613 for conducting the trade upon a joint ſtock, all the voyages being henceforth for account of the whole Company as one united body; and that they might have the opportunity of regulating their ſubſequent conduct as circumſtances ſhould direct, they agreed to limit the duration of the joint capital to four years. The ſtock thus ſubſcribed amounted to 418,691*l.* to be paid in by equal inſtalments in each of the four years.

The trade thus eſtabliſhed aſſumed a more impoſing aſpect. The Engliſh raiſed a high reputation at the court of the Great Mogul, by their bravery in repelling an attack of the Portugueſe, who were regarded by the princes of India as a common enemy, but who, from their domineering aſcendancy at ſea, were alſo conſidered as invincible on that element. The Company had alſo enemies at home, who aſſailed their reputation by invectives in print, and others more dangerous, who interfered with their proſperity, and tarniſhed their fame by piratical enterprizes. Their uſefulneſs and importance were however ſo very evident to government, that one of their calumniators was proſecuted by the attorney-general, and Sir Thomas Roe, in January, 1614–15, was diſpatched as embaſſador to the court of the Mogul, where he obtained favourable grants for the eſtabliſhment of factories at Surat, Cambay, and other places, and a general firmaun for free trade in every part of the Mogul's dominions.

In 1616, the Company poſſeſſed factories at Bantam, Jacatra, afterwards called Batavia, and Japara in Java; Acheen, Jambee, and Tecoa, in Sumatra; Banda in the Banda iſlands; Benjarmaſſing and Socodania, in Borneo; Firando, in Japan; Surat, Amadavad, Agra, Azmere or Agimere, and Brampore or Burampore, in the Mogul's dominions; Calicut on the Malabar coaſt; Maſulipatnam and Petapoli on the Coromandel coaſt; Siam, the capital of the kingdom of Siam; Patan in Malacca; and Macaſſar, in the iſland of Celebes.

The quarrels between the Engliſh and the Dutch, and a cunning view of their own intereſt, produced at this time a propoſal from the latter for an union, in favour of which they alleged ſeveral ſpecious advantages, and among others, that it would enable them to ſubdue the common enemy, the Portugueſe.

gueſe. The Engliſh company rejected the propoſal, obſerving, very properly, that the Moluccas, where the Dutch obtained their ſpices, would never yield advantages equal to the charge of maintaining them; that the trade offered by the Dutch was not equivalent to that which the Engliſh had eſtabliſhed for themſelves on the Malabar coaſt; and that war, except in ſelf-defence, was not the buſineſs of merchants.

At this time the Company cloſed the account of their firſt ſubſcription, which from various cauſes produced to the proprietors no greater profit than 87 and a half per cent. in eight years; but ſuch was the public confidence in the Company, that when they propoſed to raiſe by a new ſubſcription 1,629,040*l.*, the largeſt ſum ever known to have been ſimilarly advanced at that day, people of both ſexes, and of all ranks, claſſes, and profeſſions, haſtened in crowds to contribute the portions required. The number of ſubſcribers was nine hundred and fifty-four, and among them were fifteen dukes and earls, thirteen counteſſes and other titled ladies, eighty-two knights, judges, and privy counſellors, and twenty-ſix clergymen and phyſicians. It was determined that the duration of this ſtock, as that of the preceding one, ſhould be limited to four years; or, to ſpeak more correctly, that the Company ſhould ſend ſhips to India during four years, and ſhould bring the accounts to a cloſe as ſoon as poſſible after the arrival of the laſt of them in England.

The Dutch having made a new propoſal for an union which had been rejected, and having expreſſed great reſentment and a determination to injure the Engliſh, a ſquadron of ſix large ſhips was fitted out and put under the command of Sir Thomas Dale, who was inveſted with ample powers, not only for protection of Britiſh commerce againſt foreign aggreſſion, but alſo for puniſhing thoſe interlopers who diſgraced the Engliſh name by their piratical enterprizes. Attempts were made to put an end to hoſtilities, and a treaty for that purpoſe was concluded in July, 1619, at London, by commiſſioners choſen from each nation; but the Dutch never obſerved it, but on the contrary took every opportunity to extirpate the Engliſh, ſparing neither maſſacre nor torture in effecting their purpoſe. The inſtances of Lantore and Pulo Roon in 1620, and of Amboyna in February, 1622–3, are among the moſt atrocious, but they are not ſolitary. By perſeverance in theſe efforts, the Dutch found means to drive the Engliſh out of all the other ſpice iſlands, and plunder all the property found in their factories. The reduced ſtate of the Engliſh company, and the diſtractions of the nation during the reign of Charles I., prevented any attempt from being made to regain theſe poſſeſſions, which remained

mained in the hands of the Dutch, until the late univerſal war nearly annihilated their power and commerce in the Eaſt.

Amid theſe hoſtilities and oppoſitions, the affairs of the Company were not ſo proſperous as to ſatisfy the ſubſcribers, who were impatient for immediate profit; government, too, in violation of good faith, on the 14th of September, 1621, gave a charter to Sir William Heydon and to Charles Glenham, which materially invaded the rights of the company. The trade with Japan did not anſwer their expectations, and they were obliged to withdraw their factory. The hoſtility of the Portugueſe in Perſia alſo occaſioned great trouble and expenſe. The Duke of Buckingham, in 1624, by means of his influence extorted from them 10,000*l.*, and their enemies in parliament cenſured their eſtabliſhment with great aſperity.

Although the reaſonings of their adverſaries were triumphantly anſwered, and although there was every reaſon to expect that their affairs would ultimately be as proſperous as could in reaſon be expected, yet in January, 1628, when the time limited for the duration of the ſecond joint ſtock was expired, a propoſal for a new ſubſcription could not be carried into effect, and in May the price of their ſtock was reduced to eighty per cent. For ſome time, a partial trade was carried on in limited adventures, until 1631, when a third ſubſcription was formed, but to the amount only of 420,000*l.*

On the 12th of December, 1635, King Charles granted a charter to Sir William Courten and his aſſociates, authorizing them to ſend ſix ſhips, under the command of Captain Weddell, to Goa, Malabar, China, and Japan, and to trade during five years to the beſt advantage of themſelves and all his other ſubjects, alleging, as a reaſon, that the old company had neglected planting, ſettling colonies, and making fortifications, for ſecuring their trade, as the Portugueſe and Dutch had done; whereby the trade had decayed, and he was diſappointed of the advantages which he ought to derive from it. He directed them to ſend for one of their ſhips from the ſea of Japan, in order to ſearch for a paſſage home by the northern parts of the world; in conſideration of which they ſhould have half the cuſtoms and other benefits accruing from the countries to be diſcovered by them.

The old company petitioned in vain againſt this encroachment on their rights; they received ſoothing, though ambiguous anſwers; but their intelligence of the proceedings of their competitors put an end to all doubts. Two ſhips proceeded to the Red Sea, where they plundered a ſhip belonging to India, and the Mogul governor of Surat avenged himſelf by repriſals on the property of the original Eaſt India Company.

Three

Three other ſhips of the new aſſociates proceeded to Macao, expecting to gain great advantages by availing themſelves of ſome offers of friendſhip which had been held out by the Portugueſe to their rivals, and by which they hoped to facilitate a trade with China. They found, however, that their propoſed friends had uſed all their influence in prejudicing the Chineſe againſt the Engliſh name, and amid hoſtility and ill will, they ſucceeded but imperfectly in obtaining a temporary, but did nothing toward eſtabliſhing a permanent, commerce. A few ſentences will compriſe the further hiſtory of this pernicious and ill fated company. In their firſt voyage they made a ſmall ſettlement on the iſland of Madagaſcar, which was afterwards demoliſhed by the original company. They eſtabliſhed a factory at Rajapore, in evident contradiction to that article in their own charter, which enjoined them to abſtain from trading to thoſe parts of India to which the original company's ſhips reſorted. Their factors at Rajapore having incurred heavy debts in the country, the money on board one of their ſhips was ſeized for the benefit of their creditors. In every part of India they had to ſtruggle againſt the competition and oppoſition of the eſtabliſhed company, whoſe privileges they were invading, and alſo againſt the Dutch, the bitter and determined enemies of all Engliſhmen in the Oriental ſeas, by whom their factories were deſtroyed and two of their ſhips taken. In ſhort, this company, ſet up in direct violation of the dear bought rights of an older company, though they never did any good to themſelves during the ſhort period of their exiſtence, by their interference in the trade, and the conſequences of their piratical exploits, injured the original company to the amount of 100,000*l.*, as it was eſtimated by the general court of the company in the year 1646. Many hundreds of their creditors in England were utterly ruined, or grievouſly injured, by their failure; and they themſelves ſtated their own loſs at 151,612*l.*

The troubleſome times which enſued were extremely unpropitious to the company. In 1643, they could raiſe no greater ſubſcription for a fourth joint ſtock than 105,000*l.* The captain of one of their ſhips, worth 20,000*l.* thought himſelf authorized, in obedience to the impulſe of his loyalty, to carry her into Briſtol, and preſent her to his ſovereign for the ſupport of his cauſe, and another veſſel worth 30,000*l.* periſhed by ſhipwreck. Thus were the company's affairs brought to the very brink of ruin, although they ſtill poſſeſſed property ſufficient to ſatisfy all demands, and leave a conſiderable ſurplus.

In September, 1649, a new ſubſcription was opened, but although recommended by parliament, which had then ſuperſeded

ſeded the royal authority, it amounted to no more than 191,700*l.* In 1651, the Engliſh took poſſeſſion of the iſland of St. Helena, which they have ever ſince retained, and in the ſame year, the parliament gave them a charter for the trade of Guinea.

The navigation-act which paſſed in 1651, occaſioned a war between England and Holland, and the Dutch being effectually humbled by the ſucceſsful arms of Cromwell, ſued for peace. Among other demands made upon them, ſatisfaction was required for injuries done by them to the Engliſh trade in India, Greenland, Muſcovy, Brazil, or elſewhere. The company made out an account amounting to 2,795,999*l.*; and demanded the reſtitution of Pulo Roon and Lantore. The Dutch, who, however unſucceſsful in a war of fire arms, could not eaſily be defeated in one of arithmetical calculations, preſented a counter claim amounting to 2,919,861*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* The commiſſioners to whom the accounts were referred, awarded that the Dutch ſhould pay to the Engliſh company 83,000l., and a further ſum of 3,615*l.* to the repreſentatives of twelve victims at Amboyna; and Pulo Roon was given up, but before they left it, the Dutch grubbed up every ſpice tree in the iſland; and, fearing that the Engliſh company might effect a new plantation of thoſe valuable plants, they again took it from them in 1664.

After this, the trade of the Company was, for ſeveral years, encroached on with impunity by private adventurers, but in time the public, the Protector, and even the private traders themſelves, became convinced of the folly, if not of the injuſtice of their proceedings; and equal anxiety being expreſſed on all ſides, a new charter paſſed the great ſeal in October, 1657, and the company began to trade anew, on a joint ſtock capital amounting nominally to 739,782*l.* 10*s.*, although in reality only half the money was paid in. For this charter, after the Reſtoration, another was ſubſtituted, dated the 3d of April, 1661, which contained moſt of the privileges granted by that of Elizabeth, but reſtricted the right of voting, to proprietors of 500*l.* ſtock and upward. The company were freely to enjoy all plantations, forts, and factories, made or acquired by them in India, and erect new forts in India and St. Helena, and appoint governors and other officers, and alſo judges who ſhould try civil and criminal cauſes within their juriſdictions. They were authorized to make war and peace with any people not being Chriſtians, within the limits of their trade, and to carry out to their ſettlements as many men as they might think proper. They were alſo authorized to ſeize all Engliſh ſubjects ſailing in any Engliſh or Indian veſſels, or reſiding in India without their permiſſion, and to ſend them to England.

ACQUI-

Acquisition of Bombay. On the marriage of Charles II. in 1662, with a princeſs of Portugal, he received as part of his wife's portion the iſland of Bombay, which, in 1669, he made over to the Company, on their refunding his expenſes, and paying a fee-farm rent of ten pounds.

About the ſame period, the Company arranged a treaty of commerce with the King of the Deccan, and eſtabliſhed factories at Billipatan and in the iſland of Tywan or Formoſa. In virtue of their charter, they alſo ſeized a ſhip, and an iſland called Barella, which during the ſuſpenſion of their operations one Thomas Skinner a merchant of London had acquired. The matter would not be worthy of notice but for its conſequences. Skinner complained to the Houſe of Lords, who moſt irregularly made a decree in his favour: the Company appealed to the other branch of the legiſlature, who no leſs ſtrenuouſly ſupported their cauſe, and, in the end, both Houſes compromiſed the matter, by expunging all the proceedings from their Journals.

Introduction of Tea. In 1669, the Company received from Bantam two caniſters, containing one hundred and forty-three pounds and a-half of tea; and this is believed to have been their firſt importation of that article from any part of the Indies; for it does not appear that they had as yet any direct intercourſe with China, the native country of tea. This trifling quantity was partly given away in preſents, and partly expended in the Houſe for the refreſhment of the committees. It is hardly neceſſary to add, that the elegant luxury thus introduced has become a moſt important object in the foreign and home trade of Great Britain, and alſo in the domeſtic economy of every family in the kingdom. But it appears, that although not directly imported, it was not before unknown, or unuſed in England, ſince the liquor, not the leaf, is made an object of taxation, in a ſtatute paſſed in 1660. This tax could, of courſe, be collected only by exciſemen, which occaſioned a repeal of it in 1689, and a tax of five ſhillings per pound on the raw article, beſide the old ſubſidy of five per cent. on the value, was ſubſtituted. Tea was patronized at court by the Queen of Charles II., who had probably been uſed to it in Portugal, but it was not rapidly adopted into general uſe; it was not till 1721 that the quantity imported amounted to a million of pounds.

The Company went on increaſing in proſperity, gaining new eſtabliſhments, and their ſtock continually riſing in value, notwithſtanding the war declared againſt Holland, in 1672, which obliged them to arm ſhips and forts for their own defence, and notwithſtanding ſome attacks on their charter in print, in parliament,

parliament, and in the courts of law, all which were ably repelled.

On October 5. 1677, the King granted the Company a new charter, containing a confirmation of their privileges, together with a power to recover damages for breach of contract from their ſervants and ſhip-owners, and authority to coin money (not reſembling that of England) at Bombay and other places in India.

China Trade. In 1680 is the firſt notice of a ſhip ſent by the Eaſt India Company to China, the trade of which had been monopolized by the Portugueſe, until the Dutch obtained a ſhare by means of their ſettlement at Formoſa.

In 1682, the Engliſh were deprived by the Dutch of their ſettlement at Bantam, as already has been mentioned; they immediately betook themſelves to one at Bencoolen, which they fortified at an expenſe of 250,000*l.*, and thus prevented the Dutch from monopolizing the pepper trade.

On Auguſt 9. 1683, Charles II. gave the Company a new charter, confirming all former ones, and giving them additional powers to ſeize all veſſels treſpaſſing upon their privilege, to exerciſe martial law in their garriſons in India, and to eſtabliſh courts for the trial of crimes committed upon the ſeas, queſtions of inſurance, and commercial diſputes, in their territories.

The inhabitants of Saint Helena gave the firſt occaſion for the exerciſe of theſe new powers. Many of them had refuſed to pay the taxes for ſupport of government, ſet the Company's authority at defiance, and even made an attack on the fort. Some of the ringleaders were tried, and executed. In 1685 the Houſe of Commons, upon a complaint made by ſome perſons connected with the ſufferers, voted the conduct of the Company arbitrary and illegal; and the parliamentary diſapprobation threw a temporary cloud of unpopularity upon them, which did not, however, prevent their ſtock from riſing to the high price of 500 per cent., their net annual profits being above 100,000*l.* on the average of nine years from 1676 to 1685.

Hitherto the warlike operations of the Company had been entirely confined to conflicts againſt the Portugueſe and the Dutch in their own defence; but now they found themſelves under a neceſſity of engaging in hoſtilities with Aurengzebe, the Great Mogul, one of the ableſt of the monarchs who have borne that high ſounding title, and, indeed, the laſt who poſſeſſed energy of mind, and was really a ſovereign.

Trade with Bengal established. In 1636 Mr. Boughton, an Engliſh ſurgeon, having cured the daughter of the

Emperor Shah Jehan, and afterward another lady, the favourite of Mohamed Iſlam, the Nabob of Bengal, of dangerous diſorders, obtained from thoſe potentates a privilege of trade for all Engliſhmen who ſhould come to Bengal. In 1640, two ſhips were ſent out, and a factory ſpeedily eſtabliſhed at Hooghly, a town ſituated on the weſt branch of the Ganges, and the chief port of the province. This factory in a ſhort time became the centre of an extenſive buſineſs, ſpread over a fertile and populous country, which conſiſted not ſo much in ſelling Britiſh goods, for which the natives have little need or deſire, as in purchaſing the produce and manufactures of the country, for which a conſiderable part of the payment muſt be put into the hands of the contractors upon giving the orders. In this manner of conducting the trade (and there cannot poſſibly be any other) great ſums of the Company's money were neceſſarily ſcattered over all parts of the country; and it was alſo neceſſary to erect houſes and ſtores for lodging their ſervants and keeping their goods, which were quite defenceleſs; nothing that had the ſlighteſt appearance of fortification being allowed. The Nabob ſeeing the Company's ſervants ſo chained to his territory, that they could not withdraw without a ruinous abandonment of property, and finding them utterly unable to reſiſt his power, began to treat them with grievous cruelty, oppreſſion, and extortion. This conduct at length provoked reſiſtance. A ſtrong fleet was fitted out, which captured property belonging to the Mogul's ſubjects to the amount of a million; and in 1680, the Company's ſervants removed their property from Hooghly to Chitagong, under the protection of an armed force, and in defiance of the Nabob's troops.

A peace being effected, and the authority of the Mogul obtained for the eſtabliſhment of the Company, they continued in poſſeſſion of a factory at Soota-nutty, twenty-three miles lower than Hooghly on the eaſt bank of the ſame river; but they were ſtill oppoſed by the Nabob; and by the jealouſy of the natives prevented from fortifying their ſettlement, even in the ſlighteſt degree. In 1696, the Rajahs, or native petty princes, of the country near the Hooghly river, revolted againſt the Mogul government, and took and plundered ſeveral towns belonging to the Nabob, while his army was at a conſiderable diſtance. On this occaſion the Engliſh factory now ſettled at Calcutta, a village adjacent to Soota-nutty, the French at Chandernagore, and the Dutch at Chinſurah, near the ſouth end of Hooghly, all ſituated on the Hooghly river; augmented their ſmall military forces, and declared in favour of the Nabob, who now found himſelf obliged to deſire them to defend themſelves

ſelves againſt the common enemy. All the three nations availed themſelves of the occaſion; and theſe were the firſt European ſettlements that were fortified in any part of the Great Mogul's dominions; for the Portugueſe forts were all ſituated in places not conquered by the Mogul at the time of their erection. Aurengzebe ſent one of his grandſons to ſuppreſs the rebellion, and ſuperintend the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa. The Engliſh factory, finding this prince fond of money, by means of preſents obtained his permiſſion, in 1698, to purchaſe from the Indian proprietors the villages of Soota-nutty, Calcutta, and Govindpore, extending in all about three miles along the eaſt bank of the river, and about one mile back from it, for which they agreed to pay annually to the Nabob 1195 rupees, being the rent he received from the former proprietors. Such was the commencement of the Company's territorial poſſeſſions in Bengal. The ground, on which theſe villages ſtood, is now covered by the buildings of the flouriſhing city of Calcutta.

Proceedings in Parliament During this period, the intereſts of the Company were vehemently attacked by their enemies at home, and principally by thoſe, who, in ſpite of experience, believed or affected to believe, that the welfare of the country required that the trade ſhould be thrown open to all ſpeculators. Theſe opinions prevailed to ſuch an extent, that in January, 1691-2, the Houſe of Commons addreſſed King William to diſſolve the preſent and incorporate a new company. The committee of the Privy Council, to whom this addreſs was referred, propoſed that the Company's preſent capital, which they (the Privy Council) valued at only 740,000*l.*, ſhould be made up at leaſt 1,500,000*l.*, but not to exceed 2,000,000*l.*; and that the new ſubſcribers of the additional capital, together with the preſent members, ſhould be incorporated for twenty-one years. They alſo drew up a ſcheme containing two-and-thirty propoſitions for the management of the affairs of the propoſed new aſſociation. The Company, in their anſwer to the propoſal of the Privy Council, averred that their preſent ſtock was worth much more than 1,500,000*l.*; they aſſerted that their forts and territories in India, which had coſt them above 1,000,000*l.*, were their property for ever: and they affirmed that the intended regulations were better provided for by their preſent charter, and their own practice, than by the new propoſitions. On November 14. the King ſent Sir Edward Seymour to lay before the Houſe of Commons the propoſitions of the Privy Council, and the Company's anſwers to them, together with the opinion of the Judges, which was, that the Company could not legally be diſſolved without three years'

years' notice, and that no other company could begin their operations before the expiration of thoſe three years. The Houſe, after many warm debates upon the ſubject, at laſt preſented an addreſs of the whole Houſe to the King (February 25. 1692-3), praying that he would diſſolve the Company upon three years' notice; to which his Majeſty anſwered, on the 2d of March, that he would conſider their addreſs. In a few days after giving this anſwer he prorogued the parliament.

In that ſeſſion, a tax had been impoſed on their capital, payable at certain days, one of which payments had been neglected, and was not made till two days afterward. This circumſtance gave ſome alarm; but the Company in October, 1693, obtained a renewal of their charter, with a full reſtoration of all the powers and privileges conferred on them by former charters, ſubject to ſome ſubſequent regulations, to be made by the King, for the management of their affairs. Two ſets of regulations were publiſhed in 1693 and 1694, affecting the government of the Company in ſeveral important particulars; limiting the duration of their charter to twenty-one years, with the addition, that if found unprofitable to the crown or the realm, it might be revoked at any time on three years' notice.

Scotch Company. In 1693, William patroniſed a project for enabling the Parliament of Scotland to form a trade from that country to Africa, America, or any other part of the world. The parliament accordingly, on the plan of Mr. Paterſon, who had projected the Banks of England and of Scotland, paſſed an act for incorporating the Company of Scotland trading to Africa and the Indies. The ſum propoſed to be raiſed was a million, but the ſubſcribers in England and Holland having been induced to withdraw their ſupport from the ſcheme, no greater ſum than 400,000*l.* was raiſed. With the means thus afforded, a ſucceſsful and advantageous eſtabliſhment was formed on the Iſthmus of Darien; but the remonſtrances of Spain, reinforced, or rather, as it is ſaid, excited by King William's ſubjects in Holland, and ſtrongly ſupported by the friends of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, procured a ſuppreſſion of this eſtabliſhment; and the Scottiſh ſubſcribers received back their principal and intereſt out of the equivalent money paid at the Union.

During the war which was terminated by the peace of Ryſwick, in 1697, commercial property was ſo ill protected, that the Company ſuſtained many heavy loſſes at ſea; ſeparate traders licenſed by miniſtry interfering with their intereſts, and

other circumſtances contributing alſo to their diſtreſs, they were unable for ſeveral years to make any dividends.

NEW COMPANY FORMED. In this difficulty their proſperity received another ſevere injury by the eſtabliſhment, under authority of parliament, in 1698, of a rival company, called "the Engliſh Company trading to the Eaſt Indies," or in more familiar and compendious language "the New Company," with privilege of trading to India for ever, ſaving the rights of the old company for the period mentioned in their charter. They had alſo power to grant licenſes to individuals; and each ſubſcriber who did not trade upon the joint ſtock, retained his right to be ſole trader. To obtain this favour, two millions were lent to government at eight per cent. and the ſtock ſubſcribed amounted to two millions. The project began in difficulty, and proceeded without honour or advantage. The forts, factories, and privileges, acquired by the old Company in India, were their undoubted property: and there was not one word in the act of parliament reſpecting any ſale or conveyance of them. They might diſpoſe of them at their pleaſure to any foreign company. They had alſo an undoubted right, confirmed by the new act, to enjoy the trade during three years; and at the expiration of that term, if any of their debts were remaining unpaid, they were obliged ſtill to remain in a corporate capacity for the purpoſe of collecting their funds, and winding up their affairs. The old company, as a more effectual means of ſecuring a continuance of their India trade, had directed Mr. Dubois, their treaſurer, to ſubſcribe 315,000*l.* in the new ſtock, whereby they had a larger intereſt in it than any other ſubſcriber, whether a body corporate or an individual: and, for further ſecurity, they obtained an act of parliament in 1701, whereby they were authorized to continue a body corporate and politic, under their old name, until government ſhould redeem the new capital ſtock of two millions.

There were now three, or rather four, ſets of Engliſh merchants, with contending and interfering intereſts, all authorized by law to trade to India.

1. The old company. 2. The new company. 3. A few ſubſcribers of the general ſociety, who choſe to trade each for himſelf. 4. The ſeparate traders, who were ſo far legalized, that all the ſhips they had ſent out before the 1ſt of July, 1698, had a right to proſecute the trade during the continuance of one voyage, which might be made to include many trading voyages in India, and to return to England at ſuch time as ſhould be moſt convenient for themſelves.

As

As no fewer than ſixty ſhips are ſaid to have been employed by all theſe rivals, the irregular ſtate of the trade, which immediately enſued, occaſioned an exceſſive exportation of bullion, and alſo of merchandize; and the inevitable conſequence of the violent colliſion of the jarring intereſts in India, was a depreciation of European goods, and an enhancement of the prices of India goods; ruinous, not only to the importers, but alſo to the Engliſh manufacturers of London, Norwich, Coventry, and other places, whoſe fabrics were almoſt univerſally ſuperſeded by the wrought ſilks, bengals, mixed ſtuffs, and figured calicoes of India, China, and Perſia.

THE COMPANIES INCORPORATED. It would be no less tedious than uſeleſs to detail the evils which flowed from this ſyſtem. A prohibitory act againſt the uſe of certain fabrics of India was paſſed in 1700; and in 1702, after many difficulties, the two companies were incorporated.

In 1707, in conſideration of a new loan to government of 1,200,000*l.* without intereſt, the privilege of excluſive trade to India was prolonged until the 25th of March, 1726, with three years' notice after that day of the intention of government to pay off the loan of 3,200,000*l.*; on which being done, the charter was to ceaſe. The companies were then to be perfectly united, under one body of directors, and ſtyled "the United "Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies."

It is proper to obſerve, that when the company were obliged to raiſe, and pay into the exchequer, the ſum of 1,200,000*l.* the legal intereſt of money in England was ſix per cent.; and that they paid that large ſum merely for an addition of not quite fifteen years to the term of their privilege. Of their capital of 3,200,000*l.* they had not one penny to carry on their trade with, the whole being lent to government, and the laſt ſum without any intereſt. The whole benefit derived to their trade from their capital, ſo inveſted in the national debt, was, that it ſerved as a fund of credit, whereby they were perhaps the better enabled to borrow the ſums neceſſary for carrying on their trade; and, in fact, as they had lent their whole capital to government, they could only trade with borrowed money.

The united company ſoon began to ſhow ſigns of proſperity; they made, in 1709, a dividend of five per cent., which was progreſſively advanced till 1711, when it became ten per cent., and at that point it continued until 1722.

PROCEEDINGS IN INDIA. During this period, Jaffier Khan, the Nabob of Bengal, envious at the growing proſperity of the company's ſettlement at Calcutta, contrived, in defiance of the grants of the Emperor, to oppreſs the Engliſh by every ſpecies of vexation and extortion. The Company directed the preſi-

dencies of Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta, to join in a repreſentation of their grievances, and a petition for redreſs, to be preſented, together with a ſplendid preſent, to Furrukſhir, the Great Mogul, by ambaſſadors to be deputed by the governor of Calcutta. The embaſſy arrived at Delhi, the imperial reſidence, in July, 1715, and were obliged to wait for the lingering determination of the Emperor, or rather of his miniſters, till July, 1717, when advices from Surat of the Engliſh factory being withdrawn from that place on account of the impoſitions upon trade, together with the expectation of a ſtrong Britiſh fleet in the Indian ſeas, and the apprehenſion of a repetition of the diſtreſs brought upon the trade of that place by a fleet in 1687, determined the court to grant all their requeſts, which were written at large in mandates addreſſed to the Nabobs of Bengal and Guzerat, and the Subahdar of the Deccan, and ſealed with the Emperor's ſeal.

By the imperial mandates and patents, in all thirty-four, now obtained, the cargoes of Engliſh ſhips which might be wrecked were exempted from plunder. In conſideration of a fixed ſum to be paid to the Mogul's governor at Surat, the Company's trade was exempted from duties, and from the viſitations and extortions of officers. The rupees coined at Bombay and Madras were to be received in payment of the Mogul's revenue. Three villages contiguous to Madras, taken from the Company by the Nabob of Arcot, were reſtored. The iſland of Diu, or Divi, near Maſulipatnam, was made over to the Company for an annual rent of 7000 pagodas. All perſons indebted to the Company in Bengal, whether Europeans or natives, were to be delivered to the preſidency at Calcutta. Three days in the week were allowed for the coinage of the Company's money in the mint at Muxadabad. A duſtuck (paſſport) from the preſident at Calcutta was to exempt the goods ſpecified in it from being ſearched by the revenue officers. The Company were authorized to purchaſe thirty-ſeven towns, ſituated on both ſides of the Hooghly river, on terms ſimilar to thoſe on which they had purchaſed Calcutta and the two adjacent villages.

This extenſive grant of privileges and accommodations was conſidered as the Company's commercial charter, as long as they ſtood in need of protection from the princes of the country. The orders addreſſed to the Nabob of Guzerat and the Subahdar of the Deccan, were duly reſpected by them. But Jaffier Khan, who perceived that the poſſeſſion of the towns upon the banks of the Hooghly would enable the Company to command the navigation of the river, by erecting batteries on both ſides of it, completely fruſtrated the Emperor's grant for the purchaſe of them, by threatening the proprietors with his vengeance

vengeance if they accepted any propoſal for that purpoſe, made to them by the Company's ſervants.

In 1716, the eſtabliſhment of an Oſtend Eaſt India Company threatened to interfere with the proſperity of that in London; but it being found that much of the capital, and even the ſhips and goods with which this trade was carried on, were furniſhed by Britiſh ſubjects, means were taken, both by proclamation and act of parliament, to check this diſpoſition to indirect invaſion of the Company's rights; and if not entirely prevented, the illicit commerce was at leaſt conſiderably reſtrained. The national deluſion in 1720, (the South Sea year) raiſed Eaſt India ſtock, for a time, to the enormous price of 445 per cent., although the dividend was then no more than ten per cent.; but the Company having no ſhare in any of the projects of the day, its proſperity was not affected by their failure.

In 1730, great efforts were made by a large aſſociation of merchants in London, Briſtol, Liverpool, and other places, to induce parliament to ſuperſede the exiſting Eaſt India Company, and grant an excluſive charter to the new projectors; the Company prevented this project from taking effect by paying into the exchequer 200,000*l.* without intereſt or reimburſement, and reducing the intereſt on their old debt of 3,200,000*l.* from five to four per cent. As a neceſſary conſequence, their dividends were reduced at Chriſtmas 1732, to ſeven per cent., at which point they continued till Midſummer 1743, when they were increaſed to eight. In 1744, they advanced to government another million at three per cent.; and in 1750, in conſequence of the general reduction of intereſt on the national debt, that due on their portion of it was reduced firſt to three and a half, and afterward to three per cent. Parliament gave them a power, of which they availed themſelves, to raiſe 2,299,440*l.* 5*s.* at three per cent.; and in conſequence of the defalcation of their annual income, their dividends were reduced from eight to ſix per cent.

Changes in India. It now becomes neceſſary to caſt a rapid glance on the revolutions in India, which, by obliging the Company to act as a warlike, as well as a commercial community, have, by a ſucceſſion of extraordinary and unexpected events, thrown into their hands ſuch a large portion of territory, as places them at leaſt on a level, in reſpect to the number and opulence of the people living under their government, with the greateſt ſovereigns of Aſia, the Emperor of China only excepted.

After the death of Aurengzebe, the dominion of the Great Mogul over his ſubahdars and nabobs, the delegated governors and collectors of provinces became more and more

feeble; and these agents of the supreme power, affecting independency, claimed a right of hereditary succession and personal dominion in those offices and territories over which they had originally only a limited and accountable authority. The diminution of the power and authority of the Mogul, in consequence of the invasion of Thamas Kouli Khan, in 1739, facilitated the ambitious designs of the subahdars and nabobs, who attained a real dominion and independence, although they still verbally acknowledged the supremacy of their natural lord.

During the distractions which were thus occasioned, the English and French became military powers. In 1746, the two nations being at war, the French forces from Pondicherry captured Madras; but it was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. The extent to which the arming of these two powers had proceeded in the war, totally altered their consideration in the eyes of the natives. From being viewed as mere traders, feebly subjected to the caprice of every subordinate tyrant, they grew to be regarded as firmly established territorial governments, not inferior in power to the native princes, and far superior in all the arts of warfare; and their alliance was courted accordingly.

In 1749, the English assisted Saujohee, a deposed king of Tanjore, in an attempt to regain his dominions, he offering to cede to them the town and district of Devicotah, and to pay the expences of the war, when he should obtain possession of his dominions. They did not succeed to the extent of his wishes, but they compelled his rival, Pratop-Sing, to allow him a pension, to pay the expence of the expedition, and to cede Devicotah, with a district of the annual value of 9,000 pagodas, to the Company.

This interference by the servants of a trading company might be deemed irregular, but the French had afforded them more than a precedent. Upon the death of Nizam-al-Muluk, the subahdar of the Deccan, in 1748, the succession became an object of contention between two of his near relatives. Both applied to M. Dupleix, governor of Pondicherry; and by extensive promises, one obtained his effectual assistance; and, being established as subahdar, rewarded the services of his French ally, by constituting him his deputy-governor of the whole country south of the river Kristnah, in extent not much inferior to the kingdom of France, comprehending several nabobships, and yielding a vast revenue: and he also granted to the French East India Company the property of considerable territories adjacent to their settlements, and yielding large revenues. Murzafa-Jing, whose elevation had been thus secured, was killed

killed in a ſkirmiſh during a triumphant progreſs through his dominions; and the French immediately conferred the ſucceſſion on his eldeſt ſon, Salabat-Jing.

The Engliſh preſidency took little or no concern in the events of this war, till the year 1751, when they were provoked by an arrogant diſplay of flags, ſet up by Dupleix in his new territory, and even upon the Engliſh company's lands contiguous to Fort Saint David. Conſidering this as an act of hoſtility againſt themſelves, they determined to ſupport Mohamed-Ally in his claim to the dominion of Arcot, and immediately ſent him as large a reinforcement as they could ſpare, under the command of Captain Gingen; and ſoon after another detachment followed, commanded by Captain Clive, a ſelf-taught warrior, who had originally been appointed to the civil ſervice of the company. On the firſt of September, Clive took the fort of Arcot, in which he found effects to the value of 50,000*l.* lodged there for ſecurity by the merchants of the country, to whom he reſtored them without any ranſom, and thereby acquired the eſteem and good-will of the natives to himſelf and his nation. In a few days he was beſieged by the increaſed forces of Chunda-Saheb and his French auxiliaries; and his defence of this Indian fort was of the higheſt order of military achievements. It would be tedious to narrate all the battles, ſieges, and aſſaſſinations of this deſolating warfare, in the courſe of which ſcarcely any military conduct or fortitude was diſplayed, or any action of conſequence performed, on either ſide, but by the European auxiliaries.

In 1753, the directors of the Eaſt India Company, alarmed at the new and dangerous ſituation of their affairs in India, ſolicited government to aſſiſt them, either to finiſh or carry on the war, their own forces being unable to contend with thoſe of the French company, ſupported by their government. A negotiation was thereupon commenced with France, which ſent two commiſſioners to London to terminate the matter amicably. The Britiſh miniſtry, thinking that the French commiſſioners uſed artful delays, ordered a ſquadron of ſhips of war, with a regiment of ſoldiers, to ſail for India; and the French ſpeedily agreed that all matters in diſpute ſhould be adjuſted in India, by commiſſioners deputed from the two companies, who ſhould draw up a conditional treaty, ſubject to reviſal in Europe; and as it was apprehended that Dupleix would not be very cordial in promoting pacific meaſures, Mr. Godeheu, a director of the French Eaſt India company, was appointed to ſuperſede him in the government of Pondicherry.

On

On the 2d of Auguſt, 1754, M. Godeheu arrived at Pondicherry. He immediately opened a correſpondence with Mr. Saunders, the Engliſh governor of Madras. By the end of the year, Mr. Saunders and M. Godeheu had drawn up a proviſional treaty for reſtoring peace to the Carnatic, whereby it was agreed, that both companies ſhould renounce Mogul governments and dignities, and all interference in Indian politics. The Engliſh company ſhould retain Madras, Fort Saint David, and Devicotah, with their diſtricts, and ſome other places of inferior importance; the French ſhould poſſeſs Pondicherry and Karical, with their diſtricts, and ſome other places, reſpecting which future arrangements ſhould be concerted for the purpoſe of bringing the poſſeſſions of the two companies to an equality, and no new forts ſhould be built by either party. The priſoners ſhould be exchanged as far as the French could deliver Engliſh priſoners; and both parties ſhould unite, if neceſſary, to compel their Indian allies to keep the peace, or rather truce.

The preſence of a ſquadron of ſhips, under the command of Admiral Watſon, ſent by the Britiſh Government to the coaſt of Coromandel, is ſuppoſed to have conſiderably promoted the concluſion of the treaty. That object being accompliſhed, and there being a proſpect of tranquillity, the ſhips made ſeveral trips before the month of February, 1756, when they were employed in deſtroying a horde of pirates eſtabliſhed on a tract of coaſt between Bombay and Goa, and governed by chiefs who ſucceſſively took the name of Angria. Theſe freebooters had reigned above ſeventy years, the tremendous and invincible ſcourge of the navigators of all nations who ventured to approach the coaſt of Malabar; and their extirpation was juſtly viewed as a ſervice not leſs important to the Indian governments, than to the European traders.

In 1756, Salabat-Jing had rewarded the ſervices of the French with territories amounting in value to 300,000*l.*, while his rival, Mohamed-Ally, had only been able to confer on the Engliſh lands of the annual value of 80,000*l*; a remuneration far below the expence to which they had been put by the war. At this time, by one of thoſe ſudden revolutions in politics which are not uncommon in India, Salabat-Jing became deſirous of getting rid of his French friends, and ſent an agent to the Preſidency of Madras, requeſting them to ſend forces to aſſiſt him in driving the French out of his dominions.

The Preſidency were prevented from attempting this deſirable enterpriſe, by the ſtate of their own affairs in Bengal, where

where Surajah Dowlah, the Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, had nearly deſtroyed their ſettlement.

In this prince, a naturally cruel diſpoſition, meanneſs, ſtupidity, and habitual drunkenneſs, were joined with the vices uſual in the character of the moſt worthleſs of the Oriental deſpots. Immediately after his acceſſion, he began to haraſs and levy contributions upon all the European ſettlements in his dominions; but was particularly exaſperated againſt the Engliſh Preſidency of Calcutta, becauſe one of his ſubjects, flying from his tyranny, had been received into the town. On the 18th of June, 1756, he beſieged Calcutta, which had ſcarcely any means of defence, and on the 20th got poſſeſſion of it. Enraged at finding only 50,000 rupees in the treaſury, and pretending that a much more valuable property was buried under ground, as a puniſhment for the concealment, he crammed one hundred and forty-ſix of the principal inhabitants into an apartment not twenty feet ſquare, which, having been uſed as the priſon of the garriſon, was therefore called the *Black Hole*, where the intolerable heat, the night being uncommonly ſultry, killed them all, except twenty-three, who were allowed next morning to come out. After receiving the congratulations of his courtiers upon his glorious achievement, and leaving a garriſon of 3000 men in Calcutta, he returned to his capital, elated with the belief that he had completely exterminated the Engliſh.

Admiral Watſon and Colonel Clive ſoon arrived to relieve their countrymen. Calcutta was retaken and fortified. Surajah Dowlah was glad to make peace; and on the 9th of February he ſwore upon the Koran to preſerve it inviolably. The articles were; that the Company ſhould have full enjoyment of all the privileges granted to them by the Emperor Furrukſhir; their ſettlements, and the property plundered from them, to be reſtored; and they at liberty to fortify Calcutta, and eſtabliſh a mint.

There was reaſon to hope that tranquillity would now be reeſtabliſhed: but in a few days after ſigning the treaty, Surajah ſent letters to Buſſy, the French general in the Deccan, inviting him to come to Bengal, and aſſiſt him in rooting out the Engliſh Company; and alſo to Law, the commander of a ſmall party of French fugitives, who had been in his ſervice, ordering him to return and join his army.

Surajah's delay in executing the articles of the peace, and his evaſions, proved that he had no intention to be in friendſhip with the Preſidency; and it became neceſſary to conſider of means to counteract his perfidy. Two of the chief men of his court, diſguſted by his capricious tyranny, had, each

ſeparately

ſeparately, made application for the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces to depoſe Surajah Dowlah, and to ſet himſelf in his place. Of theſe the Governor and Council gave the preference to Mir Jaffier; and a treaty was executed, by which he engaged, that as ſoon as he ſhould be eſtabliſhed as Subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, he would confirm the articles agreed to by Surajah Dowlah. The enemies of either party, whether Indians or Europeans, ſhould be the enemies of both. All the French factories ſhould remain in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh Company, and the French ſhould never more be permitted to ſettle in any part of his dominions. He would pay a crore of rupees, as a compenſation for the damages ſuſtained by the Company when Calcutta was taken by Surajah Dowlah; he would pay fifty lacks to the Engliſh inhabitants of Calcutta, ſeven lacks to the Armenian merchants, and twenty lacks to the other inhabitants, as compenſations for their loſſes upon that occaſion.* The territory of the Company contiguous to Calcutta was to be enlarged, and particularly to the ſouthward it ſhould be extended along the ſide of the river down to Culpee, they paying the uſual rent to the Government; and he engaged to build no new forts on the river lower than Hooghly. The Engliſh forces, when in the ſervice of the Subahdar, ſhould be maintained by him. In addition to theſe articles of the treaty, he promiſed large donations to the ſoldiers and ſeamen.

Colonel Clive immediately put his little army, conſiſting of only 900 Europeans and 2200 Indian ſoldiers, in motion; and on the 23d June, Surajah, with an army of 50,000 foot and 18,000 horſe, with fifty pieces of cannon, and aſſiſted by forty Frenchmen, who directed the management of the artillery, was totally overthrown in the memorable battle of Plaſſy, whence the conqueror proceeded to Muxadabab, then the capital of Bengal, and inveſted Mir Jaffier. The wretched Surajah fled from his palace in a mean diſguiſe, on the night after the battle, and being ſoon after diſcovered, by means of a poor man whom he had treated barbarouſly, he was ignominiouſly conveyed back to the palace, in one of the moſt miſerable apartments of which he was murdered, by order of Miran, the ſon of Jaffier, a youth nearly as wicked as Surajah himſelf.

This important revolution, beſide the benefit it produced to the general affairs of the company, afforded to individuals the means of enriching themſelves both by plunder and by illicit trade up the country, in the uſe of which they diſ-

* A lack is a hundred thouſand, and a crore is a hundred lacks, or ten millions.

played.

played no forbearance. Colonel Clive having returned to Europe, his ſucceſſors in power, yielding to repreſentations connected with their own intereſt, as well as to ſome ſuggeſtions of treachery and unfitneſs in Mir Jaffier, depoſed him in 1760, and ſet up in his ſtead his ſon-in-law Mohamed Coſſim Ally Khan. As an indemnification for the expences incurred by the Company in his exaltation, and in maintaining forces for his protection, he ceded to them the diſtricts of Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chitagong; and engaged to pay up the balance of the ſum ſtipulated with Mir Jaffier, and to fulfil all the covenants entered into by that prince. This was a happy change to the inhabitants of Burdwan and Midnapore, countries ſituated on the weſt ſide of the river Hooghly, who had long been haraſſed by the predatory incurſions of the Mahratta freebooters occupying the adjoining country, and have ever ſince enjoyed tranquillity under the protection of the Company's government.

The elevation of Coſſim, far from anſwering the expectations of its projectors, had nearly ruined the Engliſh affairs. He became a ſevere oppreſſor, an active and inſidious enemy. He laid the inland trade under great impediments, murdered ſome gentlemen who were ſent to him on a deputation, and maſſacred the whole factory at Patna. The Preſidency, thus obliged to take up arms, depoſed him, in 1763: he fled, with his treaſures, into the territory of the Nabob of Oude. A war enſued with that potentate, which terminated in 1765, by his ſurrendering himſelf and his dominions to the diſpoſal of Lord (late Colonel) Clive, who had recently arrived from England, with full authority to rectify the mal-adminiſtration in India. This nobleman and General Carnac concluded a treaty with Sujah-ul-Dowlah, by which they generouſly reſtored to him the whole of his dominions, except the provinces of Corah and Allahabad; and of theſe they did not ſeek to make any advantage, either for themſelves or for the Company.

About the ſame period, Mir Jaffier dying, bequeathed his dominions to his natural ſon Nijum Dowlah, to the excluſion of his grandſon, the offspring of Miran. The Preſidency ſupported this nomination, and eſtabliſhed Nijum, entering into a treaty with him, dated the 20th of February, 1765, whereby they engaged to ſecure him in the Subahdary, and alſo to keep up ſuch a force as ſhould be neceſſary to ſupport him in it. The Subahdar, on his part, bound himſelf to fulfil all the agreements entered into by his father; to receive a reſident from Calcutta to be conſtantly with him, and to keep one from himſelf conſtantly at Calcutta, and alſo to put the chief

chief management of his affairs into the hands of Mohamed Reza Khan, a perſon recommended by the Governor and Council; to keep no greater military force than ſhould be required for the ſupport of his dignity and the collection of the revenue, to admit no Europeans into his ſervice; and not to permit the French to erect any fortifications in his country.

At the ſame time theſe able ſtateſmen conferred on Shah Aulum, the Mogul Emperor, who before had been deprived of all his revenues, and kept in diſgraceful captivity, the provinces of Korah and Allahabad, yielding an annual revenue of twenty-ſeven lacks of rupees, to which they added a ſettled income of twenty-ſix lacks, to be derived, in conſequence of a new arrangement, from the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, the payment of which ſhould be ſecured by the Company.

In gratitude for this important acquiſition of real dominion and aſſured income, the Emperor gave the Company five firmauns, all dated on the 12th of Auguſt, 1765, whereby he formally made over to them for ever the dewannee, or right of collecting for their own uſe the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſubject to the payment of an income of twenty-ſix lacks of rupees to himſelf, and a proviſion for the proper ſupport of the Subahdar's court, they being alſo bound to keep up an army ſufficient for the protection of the provinces. He alſo confirmed to them the abſolute property of the diſtricts of the Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chitagong, and the lands adjacent to Calcutta, formerly acquired from the Subahdars.

Having effected theſe important ſervices, and quelled a mutiny in the army which threatened fatal conſequences, Lord Clive returned to England, to encounter, inſtead of the ſtrains of gratitude and the ſhouts of admiration, the clamours of malevolence, and the taunts of envy and detraction, amid which he terminated his days, under circumſtances little correſponding with the extent of his merits, and the magnitude of his ſervices.

In the courſe of the war between Great Britain and France, which was ended in February, 1763, the French deſtroyed the Company's factory at Bender-Abaſſi, or Gombroon, in the Perſian Gulf; they ſurpriſed Fort Marlborough near Bencoolen, in Sumatra, which they retained till the peace; and they alſo took Fort St. David and ſome other places belonging to the Company. But, on the other hand, the French were deprived of all their inferior ſettlements on the coaſt of India, and at laſt, in 1761, of Pondicherry, the moſt important and flouriſhing of the whole, to which the property of the French

Company and individuals had been carried from the other ſettlements, as to a place of ſecurity; and by the loſs of that capital, the commercial proſperity and power of the French Eaſt India Company, which had for ſome time been exceedingly great and ſplendid, were nearly annihilated. The fortifications and houſes of Pondicherry were deſtroyed ſoon after it was taken, as a retaliation for ſimilar conduct of General Lally at Fort St. David; and at the peace it was reſtored in that deſolate condition to the French, as were alſo the other factories they poſſeſſed before the year 1749 in Coromandel, Malabar, Oriſſa, and Bengal, in which latter province they were reſtricted by the treaty of peace concluded in Europe, as well as by agreement with the Subahdar, from making any fortifications, or having any garriſons.

PROCEEDINGS AT HOME. In the period of peace which preceded the American war, the India Houſe was divided by violent factions; an attempt was made to raiſe the dividends to a deceptive height, on the ſuppoſition that the fortunate adjuſtment of affairs in India would afford extravagant returns of profit. But it was ſoon found that mal-adminiſtration, joined with many other inevitable cauſes, forbad the cheriſhing of hopes, even far more moderate. A war with the native powers terminated diſadvantageouſly; a famine reſulting from, or at leaſt increaſed by an oppreſſive ſpeculation in rice, the injudicious adminiſtration of the ceded lands, and many other circumſtances, brought the affairs of the Company to a very critical and dangerous ſtate. Committees of the Houſe of Commons were appointed to inſpect their affairs; dividends were not to be ordered by ſudden acclamation, but on five months' notice, and the Company were reſtricted for a time from declaring any above 10 per cent. Theſe reſtrictions were enforced by acts of parliament in 1767 and 1769, and the Company became liable for ſeveral years to make an annual payment to government of 400,000*l.*, in conſideration of which their territorial revenues were continued to them for the ſame number of years.

SUPERVISORS SENT OUT. Three gentlemen, Meſſrs. Vanſittart, Scrafton, and Ford, were ſent out as ſupervifors, to rectify the abuſes prevalent in India, but the veſſel which carried them was loſt, and no intelligence was ever received of the manner, time, or place of the cataſtrophe.

The Company, in 1770, increaſed the dividend to twelve, and afterward to twelve-and-a-half per cent.; but, in 1772, were obliged to lower it to ſix. The miſmanagement, profuſion, and oppreſſive acts, of ſome of their ſervants, the great ſums remitted from Bengal to China, and the heavy annual drain of 400,000*l.*

400,000*l.* paid to government, had hitherto rendered the acquiſition beneficial only to the individuals in their ſervice in India, and at home only to the ſtate. Though their commerce had, for many years, been in a very flouriſhing condition, the debt owing to government for the deficiency of the duty upon tea, the great amount of the bills drawn upon them from India, and their debts to the Bank and the Cuſtom Houſe, had not only obliged them to make a great and ſudden reduction of their dividend, and rendered it impoſſible to make the ſtipulated payment to government, but alſo reduced them to the unfortunate neceſſity of applying to Parliament for pecuniary aſſiſtance.

Interference of Parliament. In conſequence of this application, though not without much oppoſition, two acts were paſſed in 1773 for regulating the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By the firſt, the Directors, hitherto choſen annually, were to continue four years in office, ſix new ones being elected every year. No perſon from India was eligible to the office of director, till two years after his return. No proprietor of leſs than *one thouſand pounds* of the Company's ſtock, held for at leaſt twelve months, permitted to vote. The government of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, was veſted in a Governor-General, with a ſalary of 25,000*l.* a year, and four counſellors, with ſalaries of 10,000*l.* a year each; and Warren Haſtings, Eſq. was appointed the firſt governor-general. The preſidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen, were rendered ſubordinate to that of Bengal. A ſupreme court of judicature was eſtabliſhed at Calcutta, conſiſting of a chief juſtice with 8,000*l.* a-year, and three other judges with 6,000*l.* a-year each, all appointed by the crown. The ſalaries of the governor-general, the counſellors and the judges, were charged upon the territorial revenue. No perſon in the King's or the Company's ſervice was permitted to accept any preſents; but lawyers, medical men, and clergymen, might receive their cuſtomary fees. The governor-general, counſellors, and judges were prohibited from having any concern in trade; and no perſon, reſiding in the Company's ſettlements, was allowed to take more than twelve per cent. for a year's intereſt of money.

The other act ſanctioned an advance of 1,400,000*l.* in exchequer bills to the Company, at an intereſt of four per cent., and agreed to forego the claim of 400,000*l.* a-year from the territorial revenue till the debt ſhould be diſcharged. The Company were reſtricted from making dividends above ſix per cent. till the debt ſhould be diſcharged, after which they were allowed to divide ſeven per cent. till their bond debt ſhould be reduced to 1,500,000*l.* They were required to preſent a ſtate of

of their accounts every half year to the lords of the treaſury, and reſtricted from accepting bills from India to the amount of more than 300,000*l.* in a-year.

The extenſion of trade to China had rendered tea the ſtaple commodity of the Company, but the high duties rendered it alſo the ſtaple commodity of ſmugglers in all parts of the world, and the large ſtock on hand was extremely detrimental to the Company. After trying ſome temporary expedients, Parliament, in the ſame ſeſſion in which the two acts above mentioned were paſſed, licenſed them to export tea to the Britiſh colonies in America, and allowing the whole cuſtom duty to be drawn back on tea ſo exported, notwithſtanding the law obliging them to make all their ſales in this kingdom; provided that there ſhould be at leaſt ten millions of pounds left in their warehouſes for home conſumption. This meaſure, however well intended, was infinitely detrimental to the Company and the nation. The Americans deſtroyed the cargoes on their arrival, and from this act commenced that courſe of hoſtility which, after a long war, ſeparated thoſe colonies from the parent ſtate.

Further Acquisitions. In 1775, the Company acquired the province of Benares, by a treaty with Azuf-ul-Dowlah, the new Nabob of Oude. In the following year, they obtained a confirmation of the property of Salſette, a fertile iſland adjacent to Bombay, which their troops had taken from the Mahrattas in the year 1773; and in 1777, the debt owing to government being completely paid, the Company raiſed their dividend to ſeven, and the next year to eight per cent.

Captures from the French. In 1778, the French joined the revolted colonies of Great Britain. As this event had been foreſeen, the Eaſt India Company had ſent directions to all their preſidencies to be prepared for acting vigorouſly, as ſoon as they ſhould have notice of the commencement of hoſtilities. It ſo happened, that the notice was conveyed to India ſo very ſpeedily, that in the month of July the French Company were deprived of all their ſettlements in Bengal and Coromandel, except Pondicherry, which, after a gallant defence, alſo ſubmitted to the Britiſh arms on the 16th of October. Many French ſhips were alſo taken during this ſhort, but very active campaign, the events of which totally extinguiſhed the commerce and power of the French Eaſt India Company.

Proceedings at Home. The Company having diſcharged the debt owing to the public, and alſo reduced their bond debt to 1,500,000*l.*, the public again became entitled to the ſtipulated participation of the territorial revenue. But parliament reſolved to leave it entire to them till the 5th of April,

1780, on condition only that their dividend ſhould not exceed eight per cent. before that day.

In 1779 the Company built, rigged, and armed three capital ſhips of war of ſeventy-four guns each, which they preſented to government, and they alſo gave a large ſum of money in bounties to ſix thouſand ſeamen for the ſervice of the navy. Nor was it only by their own donations that they augmented the national force; their patriotic example was followed by ſeveral other ſocieties, who alſo contributed ſhips and men upon ſcales proportioned to their abilities. About the ſame time, the miniſter gave them notice, that the debt of 4,200,000*l.* due from government, ſhould be paid off on the 5th April, 1783, and their excluſive privilege aboliſhed, unleſs they would agree to pay a million, reſtrict their future dividends to eight per cent., and become bound to pay three-fourths of the ſurplus profits over that dividend into the Exchequer. The Company refuſing to accede to the miniſter's demand, even when reduced to 600,000*l.* for the renewal, it was at laſt ſettled, that they ſhould pay 400,000*l.*, in full of all claims of the public upon them to the firſt of March, 1781; and their excluſive commercial privileges and territorial poſſeſſions were continued to them till the firſt of March, 1791, with three years' notice after that day. After payment of all charges and of a dividend of eight per cent., three-fourths of the ſurplus profits were to be paid into the Exchequer, and the remaining fourth might be employed in increaſing the dividend, by ſums not exceeding one per cent. in any one year, nor ever to riſe above twelve and a half per cent. The Company, alſo, finding a ſurplus of 288,025*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.* above the 400,000*l.* they were obliged to pay to government, did not diſtribute it in dividends or add it to their general ſtock, but employed it in trade and placed it to a diſtinct account, under the title of the Company's ſeparate fund.

The government of Mr. Haſtings was embarraſſed by diſputes between the Supreme Council and the Supreme Court. To put a ſtop to the miſeries flowing from the contentions of the jarring authorities, and to protect the natives from the diſtreſſes ariſing from the execution of laws unſuitable and inapplicable to their manners, religion, and way of life, another act was paſſed, in 1781, for reſtricting the juriſdiction of the Supreme Court, in which it was particularly provided, that the Mohamedans and Hindoos ſhould have the benefits of their own laws, and, that the authorities of fathers and maſters of families ſhould be preſerved inviolate, according to their uſages and the rules of their caſts.

WAR IN INDIA. The Company's ally, the Nabob of Arcot, and alſo their own poſſeſſions and commerce in the ſouth parts of Hindoſtan, had long been haraſſed by a war with Hyder Ally, an enterpriſing adventurer, who, by the exertion of military talents much ſuperior to the uſual ſtandard of Mohamedan commanders in India, and by judiciouſly abſtaining from riſking his undiſciplined army in pitched battles againſt European troops, had raiſed himſelf from a low ſtation to the ſovereignty of Myſore and other extenſive provinces. This redoubtable enemy had formerly reduced the Preſidency of Madras and the Nabob to the humiliating neceſſity of accepting a peace dictated by himſelf; but a continuance of peace with the Company was not conſiſtent with his ambitious politics. Having ſecured a powerful aſſiſtance from the Mahrattas and ſome inferior Indian princes, and attracted to his ſervice a pretty conſiderable body of French officers and ſoldiers, he renewed the war, defeated a Britiſh army, took the city of Arcot, ravaged the country, and threw the Company's ſervants and allies into the greateſt diſtreſs, which continued till Admiral Sir Edward Hughes and General Sir Eyre Coote arrived. Theſe able commanders turned the tide of victory; in October, 1781, the Berar Mahrattas were detached from their alliance with Hyder Ally by the judicious management of Mr. Haſtings; and in May, 1782, the Poonah Mahrattas entered into a friendly and liberal treaty with the Company. Thus was the formidable confederacy of princes, which threatened the extinction of the Britiſh name in India, diſſolved, and Hyder left with ſcarcely any aſſiſtance, except what he obtained from the French, whoſe fleet was repeatedly encountered by Sir Edward Hughes. The implacable enmity againſt the Company, which influenced all the actions and policy of Hyder, was not terminated, nor even ſuſpended by his death, which happened in the end of the year 1782, but was inherited along with his dominions by his ſon Tippoo Saib. In March, 1784, this fierce war was terminated, chiefly by the ſeceſſion of the French auxiliaries, when they were informed of the peace in Europe. Each party reſtored the forts and territories taken from the other; Tippoo gave up all pretenſions to the Carnatic; and he engaged to allow the Company all the commercial privileges in his dominions, which had been promiſed by his father.

MR. FOX'S INDIA BILLS. Parliament having been much engaged in the conſideration of the affairs of India, Mr. Fox, then one of the ſecretaries of ſtate, brought into parliament, in November, 1783, a bill for veſting the affairs of the Eaſt India Company in the hands of ſeven noblemen and gentlemen,

as principal directors, aſſiſted by nine others, who ſhould be proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock, holding not leſs than 2,000*l.* each. He propoſed, at the ſame time, another bill for preventing arbitrary and deſpotic proceedings in the adminiſtration of the territorial poſſeſſions. The details of theſe bills are not given here; they were vehemently oppoſed in and out of parliament, and after paſſing the Commons were rejected by the Lords; and their rejection was followed by the diſmiſſal of the miniſtry.

Mr. Pitt's Bills. In January, 1784, Mr. Pitt, then recently appointed Firſt Lord of the Treaſury, brought in a bill for the better government of India, which was rejected by the Houſe of Commons; but Parliament having been diſſolved, he brought in an improved bill, which paſſed in Auguſt, 1784, and forms the baſis of the preſent government of India.

It eſtabliſhed a board of commiſſioners for ſuperintending and controlling the civil and military government and revenues of the territorial poſſeſſions, and alſo the affairs of the Eaſt India Company. The governor-general and council of Calcutta were to retain the controlling power over the other preſidencies. Perſons going out to India in the civil or military ſervice of the Company muſt not be under fifteen nor above twenty-two years of age, with an exception for the military ſervice in favour of officers who have ſerved at leaſt one year in the army or militia. Preſents were prohibited as in former acts. All perſons returned from India muſt give an inventory of their property into the Court of Exchequer.* The remaining ſections of the act direct the method of proceeding againſt Britiſh ſubjects, accuſed of extortion or other miſdemeanours committed in India.

Commutation Act. In the ſame ſeſſion, the attention of the legiſlature was called to the ſmuggling of tea, which was found to prevail to an aſtoniſhing extent. It appeared that the average annual importation by ſhips belonging to the Company was 5,639,939 pounds, and that by ſhips belonging to the reſt of Europe 13,198,202 pounds, while the average conſumption was nearly the reverſe of theſe quantities, being in the Britiſh dominions 13,338,140 pounds, and on the continent of Europe at moſt, 5,500,000 pounds. It followed that that three-fifths of the tea uſed in England muſt be obtained by ſmuggling, and it was known that ſeveral millions of pounds of the leaves of ſloe, aſh, and other trees, were ſold for tea, whereby the probable total amount of real and factitious tea

* This inquiſitorial ſection was repealed by 26 Geo. III. c. 57.

conſumed

conſumed in the Britiſh dominions was raiſed to about eighteen millions of pounds, whereof it appeared that the enormous quantity of near thirteen millions muſt have conſiſted of ſmuggled and counterfeit tea. To remedy the evident evils which flowed from this abuſe, the exiſting duties on tea were all repealed, and inſtead of them was impoſed one of twelve and a half per cent. on the ſale price, and exportation was allowed duty free. To make up for the deficiency of revenue, a new tax was impoſed on windows, and this was popularly called the Commutation Act. The Company ſeconded the efforts of the government by purchaſing 17,312,484 pounds of tea from the companies on the continent; thus removing the temptation to get rid of it by contraband trade: the good conſequences of the new ſyſtem were immediately evident.

Impeachment of Mr. Hastings. In 1787, the Houſe of Commons voted the impeachment of Warren Haſtings, Eſq. for high crimes and miſdemeanours: the trial of this gentleman laſted, at intervals, until the 23d of April, 1795, when the lords acquitted him of all the charges. The Company in conſideration of his long, faithful, and important ſervices, diſcharged the expences of his defence, amounting to upwards of 70,000*l.* and ſettled upon him an annual income of 5,000*l.*

Private Trade allowed. For ſeveral years before the beginning of the war in 1793, the Company continued to extend their trade, particularly with China, and they were enabled by parliament to add 1,800,000*l.* to their capital ſtock, which they did on terms highly advantageous to them. In thus increaſing their own commerce, they were not unmindful of the intereſts of their ſervants, but permitted the captains and officers of their ſhips to employ the ſpare ſpace for their advantage in private adventures.

War with Tippoo. The Rajah of Travancore having become involved in hoſtilities with Tippoo Saib, the preſidency of Madras took up the quarrel of their ally, the Rajah; and treaties being made with the Nizam of the Deccan and the Poonah Mahrattas for their co-operation, and the Bombay preſidency being called upon for the aſſiſtance of their forces, all thoſe allies, under the immediate direction of Earl Conwallis, the governor-general of India, marched in various directions againſt Tippoo. He reſiſted their attacks with great judgment and valour, but after defending himſelf almoſt two years, he was compelled to ſign a treaty on the 17th day of March, 1792, whereby he ceded about one half of his dominions, to be divided among the Company, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas, became bound to pay all expences of the war, and delivered two of his ſons into the hands of Lord

Cornwallis as hoſtages for the faithful performance of his ſtipulations. By this treaty the Company acquired an annual revenue of 240,000*l.*, and received 1,600,000*l.* in money.

Embassy to China. In 1792, Lord Macartney was diſpatched on an embaſſy to China, from which great expectations were entertained, but from ſome unaſcertained cauſe, they were altogether fruſtrated.

Financial Arrangements. In June, 1793, an act paſſed, whereby the management of the dividends upon the debt of 4,200,000*l.*, owing by the public to the Company, was transferred from the Company to the Bank, the capital being ingrafted in the three per cent. reduced annuities; and this ingraftment is declared to be a redemption of the debt, except that whatever part of the capital the Company may retain as their property in their corporate capacity, though under the management of the Bank, muſt, in the event of their privilege being terminated, be repaid to them at par.

New Act for the Government of India. In the ſame ſeſſion, an act was paſſed which ſo effectually regulates the ſtate, commerce, and conduct of the Company, the reſident officers, and the Britiſh ſubjects in general with reſpect to India, that it is thought proper to give at length the extract from it, as preſented by Mr. Macpherſon.

By this ſtatute, 33 Geo. III. c. 52., the Company's excluſive privilege of trade, and their territorial poſſeſſions, are continued till the 1ſt of March, 1814, to be then terminated on payment of all ſums due to them, and giving three years' notice.—His Majeſty may appoint commiſſioners for the affairs of India, to direct the adminiſtration of the revenues, and the civil and military government, for which purpoſe the Company's books and diſpatches muſt be ſubmitted to their inſpection.—The expenſe of this board, and their officers, limited to 16,000*l.* a year, is to be defrayed by the Company.—The government of India is veſted in a governor and three counſellors, in each of the preſidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, the two latter preſidencies being ſubordinate to the former, the governor of which is governor-general of the whole Britiſh territories in India.—The governors and counſellors are to be appointed by the directors, and no perſon is eligible to the council till he has reſided twelve years in India in the Company's ſervice.—The directors may alſo appoint perſons, proviſionally, to ſucceed to any of the above offices, on the death or removal of the perſons poſſeſſing them; and, in caſe of no ſuch proviſional appointment being made, the office ſhall devolve upon the perſon next in rank at the time of the vacancy, except the commander of the forces, who ſhall not ſucceed to the government, unleſs he

be

be expreſsly appointed to the proviſional ſucceſſion.—His Majeſty, by his ſign-manual, counterſigned by the preſident of the board of commiſſioners, may remove any of the Company's officers or ſervants in India.—'And foraſmuch as to purſue 'ſchemes of conqueſt and extenſion of dominion, in India, are 'meaſures repugnant to the wiſh, the honour, and policy of 'this nation,' the governor-general is not authorized to make war, without the expreſs order of the court of directors, or of the ſecret committee and the board of commiſſioners, unleſs the Company or their allies are attacked, or preparations are made by an enemy for attacking them.—In order to give energy and diſpatch to the meaſures of government, the governors are empowered to act without the concurrence, or againſt the opinion, of their council, but, in that caſe, taking the whole reſponſibility upon themſelves.—The directors muſt not ſend out more writers, or cadets, than are neceſſary to ſupply the vacancies.—No perſon can be ſent out to India, whoſe age is under fifteen, or above twenty-two years; but commiſſioned officers, who have been one year in actual ſervice in the army, militia, or fencibles, not older than twenty-five years, may go out as cadets.—No Britiſh ſubject in His Majeſty's, or the Company's ſervice in India, is permitted to receive any preſent, either for himſelf or in the name of the Company; but lawyers, medical men, and chaplains, may lawfully receive their profeſſional fees, as formerly.—In caſe of the Company's excluſive privilege being terminated, they may ſtill carry on a free trade in their corporate capacity, in common with other Britiſh ſubjects.—In caſe of any territory being obtained from the Chineſe government, and a ſettlement being eſtabliſhed upon it by the Company, all His Majeſty's ſubjects may lawfully export Britiſh and Iriſh manufactures to it in the Company's ſhips, at a moderate rate of freight, the goods being conſigned to the Company's ſupercargoes, or free merchants licenſed by the Company, who ſhall pay the proceeds into the Company's treaſury, and receive bills payable in Great Britain.—Ships employed in the ſouthern whale fiſhery, and in the trade to the north-weſt coaſt, may navigate the ſeas within the limits of the Company's privilege, under certain limitations, on giving ſufficient ſecurity that they ſhall not infringe the Company's commercial privileges.—Any of His Majeſty's ſubjects, reſiding in any part of his European dominions, may export to Bengal, Malabar, Coromandel, or Sumatra, in the Company's ſhips, any article of the produce or manufacture of the Britiſh European dominions, except military ſtores, ammunition, maſts, ſpars, cordage, anchors, pitch, tar, and copper; and in like manner the Company's civil ſervants in India, and the

free merchants living in India under the Company's protection, may ſhip on their own account and riſk, in the Company's ſhips, all kinds of India goods, except calicoes, dimities, muſlins, and other piece goods, which they muſt not ſhip unleſs particularly licenſed by the Company.—If the Company ſhall not have purchaſed fifteen hundred tons of Britiſh copper before the 31ſt day of Auguſt in each year, the proprietors of Britiſh copper may export, on their own account and riſk, as much as the Company's export ſhall fall ſhort of that quantity, in the Company's ſhips, on giving notice to their ſecretary.—If the Company, and the perſons licenſed by them, do not import a ſufficient quantity of piece goods for the conſumption of Great Britain, as far as ſuch goods are permitted to be uſed for home conſumption, and alſo of the piece goods intended for exportation, the board of commiſſioners may authorize individuals to import all, or any of the ſorts, of the goods above mentioned, under ſuch regulations as they ſhall think proper, and agreeable to the law prohibiting the conſumption of certain ſpecies of goods in this kingdom.—'For inſuring to private 'merchants and manufacturers the certain and ample means of 'exporting their merchandize to the Eaſt Indies, and importing 'the returns for the ſame, and the other goods, wares and 'merchandize, allowed by this act, at reaſonable rates of 'freight,' the Company muſt, every year, appropriate at leaſt three thouſand tons of ſhipping for carrying goods, which may be lawfully exported or imported by individuals, which quantity of ſhipping may be augmented or diminiſhed, as the commiſſioners ſhall think proper.—The owners of the goods ſhipped ſhall pay to the Company, in the time of peace, five pounds outwards, and fifteen pounds homeward per ton; and in time of war, the freight ſhall be raiſed, with approbation of the commiſſioners, in ſuch proportion as the Company themſelves pay for their freight.—The ſervants of the Company, except thoſe engaged in juridical or military duties, and thoſe prohibited by their covenants, may act as agents for the ſale of goods lawfully ſhipped by individuals, and for providing the goods allowed to be imported by them in return; and the private merchants, licenſed by the Company, have alſo permiſſion to act as agents.—Britiſh ſubjects, in India, muſt not reſide in any place more than ten miles diſtant from one of the principal ſettlements, unleſs ſpecially licenſed by the Company, or by the governor of a principal ſettlement.—The duty of five per cent., formerly paid to the Company on the goods imported in private trade, and the charge of two per cent. for landing and ſelling, are abrogated; and, inſtead of them, the Company are to charge three per cent. on the ſale amount of all goods brought

brought from India, (but not from China,) as full compenſation for the expences of hoyage, landing, cartage, ſtorage, ſorting, lotting, and ſelling, which, with the freight, conſtitutes the whole charge, payable to the Company, upon India goods ſo imported.—The goods imported from China, in private trade, are ſtill liable to the former charges of five and two per cent.; and the Company's engagements with their commanders, officers, and other ſervants, remain unaffected by this act.—In order to encourage individuals to engage in the trade of importing raw materials for manufactures from India, and to ſecure to manufacturers the means of furniſhing themſelves therewith, the Company are required to make ſpeedy and frequent ſales of raw ſilk, ſugar, cotton, cotton yarn, wool, ſkins, dye-ſtuffs, drugs, and other articles of raw material, whether imported in private trade or on the Company's own account, in moderate lots, agreeable to regulations framed by the directors, and approved by the commiſſioners.—All goods imported in private trade ſhall be ſecured in the Company's warehouſes, and ſold by public auction, under the order of the court of directors, for account of the proprietors.

The net produce of the territorial revenues ſhall be applied in the following order of preference, and to no other purpoſe: —Firſt, in ſupporting a ſufficient military and marine force in India, maintaining the forts, and ſupplying military and naval ſtores.— Secondly, in paying the intereſt of the debt owing by the Company in India.—Thirdly, in defraying the expences of the civil and commercial eſtabliſhments of the ſeveral ſettlements. —Fourthly, a ſum, not under a crore of current rupees, ſhall be iſſued every year to the commercial boards, to be applied to the purchaſe of the Company's inveſtments in India and China. —Fifthly, in caſe of any part of the India debt being diſcharged, or transferred to Great Britain, the ſum allotted for the commercial inveſtments may be proportionally enlarged.— Laſtly, whatever ſurplus there may be, ſhall be applied to the reduction of the Company's debt in India, or to ſuch other purpoſes as the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the commiſſioners, ſhall direct.—The governments in India may draw bills upon the Company, for the purpoſe of transferring the India debt to Great Britain, to the extent of 500,000*l.* in a year, payable either to the creditors, or to other perſons advancing money for the purpoſe of paying off the India debt.

The Company's profits in Europe, after paying intereſt and charges, ſhall be applied as follows, and in the following order of preference, and to no other purpoſe: — Firſt, in paying a dividend of ten per cent. upon the capital ſtock to the proprietors,

prietors, the firſt payment to be made at Midſummer, 1793. — Secondly, in ſetting apart 500,000*l.* annually for the payment of bills drawn for the purpoſe of transferring the India debt to Great Britain, till the debt in India ſhall be reduced to two millions. — Thirdly, in paying into the Exchequer a ſum not exceeding 500,000*l.* annually, to be applied as Parliament ſhall direct, except as in this act is otherwiſe ſpecially provided. — Fourthly, till the India debt ſhall be reduced to 2,000,000*l.* the ultimate ſurplus may be applied to the further reduction of it, or in payment of debts at home, excepting India bonds, to the amount of 1,500,000*l.*; or it may be inveſted in goods to be ſent to India or China, the proceeds of which ſhall be applied to the reduction of the debt in India. — Laſtly, when the India debt ſhall be reduced to 2,000,000*l.*, and the bond debt to 1,500,000l., one-ſixth part of the ſurplus, after the above mentioned payments are made, ſhall be applied to augment the dividends on the Company's capital ſtock; and the other five-ſixths ſhall be paid into the Bank, in the name of the Commiſſioners for the reduction of the national debt, the account of which ſhall be kept under the title of *The Guarantee Fund of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to India*, till the ſums ſo paid, with the growing intereſt upon them, ſhall amount to twelve millions; after which the ſurplus ſhall be paid into the Exchequer, as the property of the public in full right. But, if the India debt ſhall afterward riſe above 2,000,000*l.*, or the bond debt riſe above 1,500,000*l.*, the above-mentioned applications for the reduction of them ſhall again take place, and continue ſo long as thoſe debts exceed the preſcribed limits. — When the guarantee fund ſhall have accumulated to 12,000,000*l.* the dividends growing upon it ſhall be applied to make up the Company's dividend to ten per cent., if at any time their funds, appropriated to that purpoſe, ſhall prove inſufficient. — In caſe of the Company's excluſive privilege being terminated, and their funds, after diſcharging every claim upon them, not being ſufficient to allow 200*l.* to the proprietors for every 100*l.* of their capital ſtock, the guarantee fund ſhall be liable to make good whatever deficiency there may be; and whatever ſurplus there ſhall be, over making good ſuch deficiency, ſhall belong to the public. If the payments to the Exchequer and the Bank ſhall at any time be found prejudicial to the affairs of the Company, they may be ſuſpended, by order of the lords of the treaſury. — If thoſe payments ſhall be rendered impracticable, by the extraordinary expences incurred by war, or preparations for war, the arrears of them ſhall not be permitted to retard the accumulation of the guarantee fund, but ſhall be paid to the public on the determination

termination of the Company's exclusive privilege, if the funds shall be sufficient, after paying off all debts, to allow the proprietors 200*l.* for every 100*l.* of their capital stock; failing which, the claim of the public upon the Company for arrears shall drop. — This act shall not affect the right of the public, or of the Company, to the territorial possessions beyond the term now granted. — After the Company shall have paid 500,000*l.* to the public, in January, 1794, their separate fund may be applied in making an addition of one half per cent to the annual dividend of ten per cent. — For the purpose of protecting the funds of the Company, during the term of their exclusive privilege, from being burthened with improper charges, they are restricted from granting any new salary or pension, or any augmentation of salary or pension, exceeding 200*l.* annually, without the approbation of the commissioners. — The directors are required to lay a state of their accounts, of every kind, before both Houses of Parliament in April every year. — There being many unsettled claims between the public and the Company, all such, which were prior to the 24th of December, 1792, are cancelled on both sides; and after that period, the expences of His Majesty's troops are at the charge of the Company.

All His Majesty's subjects residing in Great Britain, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, America, or the West Indies, are strictly prohibited from trading to, or being in India, unless licensed by the Company; and the ships and cargoes of such illicit traders, and also their persons, shall be seized by any of the Company's governors or agents, and the illicit traders shall be sent to England to answer for their offences. — Persons discharged from the Company's service or protection, and remaining in India after the proper time allowed for their departure, are to be treated as illicit traders. — All merchandize and bullion shipped for India, except the property of the Company, and of persons authorized by this act, and all goods taken out of any ship on her homeward-bound passage before her arrival in England, shall be forfeited, together with double the value; and the commander or officer, knowingly permitting such unlawful loading, for every such offence shall forfeit 1000*l.*, besides all the wages owing to him, and be rendered incapable of serving the Company ever after. — British subjects, as above described, trading to India under the authority of any foreign prince or state, shall forfeit 500*l.* for every such offence. — The governors, and the officers of the revenue and of justice, in India, are prohibited from having any concern in trade, except on the Company's account. — The judges of the Supreme Court shall not have any concern whatever in trade. — No

— No Britiſh ſubject ſhall be concerned in the inland trade in ſalt, betel nut, tobacco, or rice, except on account of the Company, or by their licence.— No perſon ſhall ſend Eaſt India goods to Europe, by the way of Suez in Egypt, or by any other channel of conveyance than what is directed by this act. — But the ſervants of the Company, who are not prohibited from trading on their own account, and the free merchants, may ſell goods in India to the ſubjects of any foreign ſtate, and may act as agents for ſale and returns to any foreign Company or foreign merchants.

Such were the chief of the multifarious proviſions of the Charter Act.

Captures from the French. As ſoon as the commencement of the war was known in India, the French were deprived of their ſettlements at Chandernagore, Pondicherry, Karical, Yanam, and Mahé, and their factory at Surat, whereby their India trade was totally annihilated.

Duties on Tea. The further progreſs of the national war little affected the intereſts of the Company on the continent of India. They perſevered for the public good, although to their own loſs, in encouraging the growth and importation of raw ſilk, and government progreſſively advanced the duty on tea from 12½ to 96 per cent., deriving thus a double advantage from the commutation act, while the conſumption of the article, far from decreaſing, advanced to an average of twenty millions of pounds per annum. In the mean time, the increaſing commerce of America with Britiſh India rendering the meaſure neceſſary, ſome regulations were adopted in 1799, favourable to the Britiſh trade in the duties on exports.

War with Tippoo. Tippoo Sultan, hoping that the war between Great Britain and France would afford him a favourable opportunity of being revenged for his former loſſes and diſaſters, entered into engagements with Zemaun Shah, King of Cabul, in the beginning of 1796, and in 1797 ſent ambaſſadors to the governor of the Iſle of France. His object in both negotiations was to obtain a powerful co-operation from different quarters, in a war to be undertaken for the purpoſe of exterminating the Engliſh Company, and dividing their poſſeſſions among himſelf and his allies; or, in caſe of peace taking place in Europe, inducing the French government to inſiſt on the reſtitution of the territory and treaſure he was deprived of in the preceding war by the Company and their allies. His embaſſadors obtained a very ſmall military force from the Iſle of France, but the reception of French officers and ſoldiers by Tippoo was deemed equivalent to a declaration of hoſtility, eſpecially when with that conduct was combined the anxious attention

attention he had beſtowed upon the augmentation and improvement of his military force ever ſince the termination of the preceding war. Lord Mornington, the Governor-general, as ſoon as he was apprized of Tippoo's proceedings, ſtrengthened the alliances with the Nizam of the Deccan and the Mahrattas, and ordered the Coromandel and Bombay armies to aſſemble in force. After ſome correſpondence with Tippoo, who endeavoured to gain time, operations were commenced. Tippoo's armies were repeatedly defeated; and at laſt, on the fourth of May, 1799, Seringapatam, his capital, was taken by aſſault, and the Sultan was ſlain. His dominions were divided among the Company, the Nizam, the Mahrattas, and an infant repreſentative of the old rajahs of Myſore, to whom the original territory of his anceſtors was allotted. A liberal proviſion was alſo made for the children, relations, and dependents of the fallen prince. It was hoped that the downfall of this formidable and inveterate enemy would inſure the ſafety and proſperity of the Company's poſſeſſions in the ſouth part of India, but they were even by ſucceſs brought in contact with the Mahrattas, a nation whoſe valour, or rather ferocity, forms a ſtriking contraſt to the mild and ſubmiſſive temper of the other Hindoos, whoſe chief employment is warfare, whoſe warfare is plunder and deſolation, and whom the great Moguls, when in the zenith of their power, were never able to ſubdue.

Troops sent to Egypt. It was ſuppoſed that the French expedition to Egypt, headed by Bonaparte, was formed in furtherance of the views of Tippoo to deſtroy the Britiſh commerce and aſcendancy, and accordingly the Company joined their endeavours with thoſe of the country at large for the expulſion of the enemy, by ſending a large body of ſepoys to the ſcene of action.

Ship Building in India. Before the Company became poſſeſſed of territory in India, the people reſiding there in their ſervice were few, their ſole employment being the adminiſtration of commercial affairs; and the few moderate fortunes, acquired by the induſtry of many years, were remitted in bills drawn upon the Company. Immediately after the acquiſition of the territorial revenue, many new departments of office became neceſſary, and the number of the Company's ſervants was conſequently much augmented. At that time, many of them became ſuddenly poſſeſſed of prodigious wealth; and, the Company's bills not being ſufficient for the remittance of the whole of it, a great deal was brought to Europe by foreign veſſels. Hence originated a clandeſtine connection with the foreign companies, which was conſidered injurious to that of England. It was the profeſſed intention of the act of 1793 to remedy

remedy this abuſe by opening a legitimate channel of conveyance for the property acquired by Britiſh ſubjects in India, ſo that the whole trade, truly founded upon Britiſh capital, might be brought to London, and alſo to open to the manufacturers of Great Britain an extended vent for their goods in India, where it was alleged much larger quantities might be conſumed than are carried out by the Company. Theſe purpoſes it was conceived might be accompliſhed by allowing individuals in India to ſend Indian commodities to London, and Britiſh manufacturers to ſend their fabrics to India in the Company's ſhips, by which the manufacturers might alſo import the produce and manufactures of India in return. As a neceſſary part of this plan, it was enacted, that the Company's civil ſervants in India, and alſo the free merchants there, ſhould be authorized to act as agents in this branch of trade. Thus was the Company's monopoly laid open by law, to a certain extent, in favour of the Britiſh reſidents in India, and the Britiſh manufacturers at home.

The manufacturers ſcarcely ever ſought to avail themſelves of their newly acquired privilege of becoming Eaſt India merchants; but the merchants reſiding in India, as ſoon as they underſtood that a legalized extenſion of their trade was in the contemplation of the legiſlature, and without waiting to know the regulations, built a conſiderable number of ſhips, which they propoſed to employ in the trade between India and England, though Lord Cornwallis, then Governor-general, and Sir John Shore, his ſucceſſor, both informed them that there could not be employment for their ſhips in the way that they expected. In 1795, when ſeven of the largeſt of the Company's ſhips were taken into His Majeſty's ſervice, and the Company at the ſame time ordered large quantities of rice to be brought from India to afford relief to this country, when diſtreſſed by a ſcarcity of corn, twenty-ſeven of thoſe India built ſhips were taken into the Company's ſervice, at the rate of 16*l.* per ton for rice and heavy and 20*l.* for fine goods. All theſe veſſels carried goods to London for account of the private merchants ſettled in India, and alſo carried Britiſh goods to India for them. The owners of the India built ſhips now thought that they had reaſon to believe them regularly eſtabliſhed in the trade; but as the emergency which called them into employment no longer exiſted, it was impoſſible to allow them to ſuperſede the ſhips built and equipped in a ſuperior manner expreſsly for the ſervice of the Company, which they were under engagements to employ for a ſtipulated number of voyages. The merchants, diſappointed of getting their ſhips into the trade, made grievous complaints of the heavy freight and many hardſhips put upon

them by the Company's regulations. They did not allege that any of the grievances they complained of were infractions of the act of 1793; nor could it be denied, that many deviations from the provisions of that act had been made in their favour; but they now changed their ground, and advanced new claims which had not been thought of, or at least not brought forward when that act was under the consideration of parliament. It is beyond the scope of this work to detail all the allegations and arguments which were made use of on both sides of this very important question. Great names may be cited as favouring each side, but the purposes of the innovation succeeded to a considerable degree.

Acquisition of the Carnatic. The connexion of the Madras government with the Nabob of the Carnatic, which began in 1751, was kept up with him and his successors, by the Company's forces protecting them against their enemies, and particularly against the reiterated attempts of Hyder Ally and his son Tippoo. As a fixed compensation for the expence thus incurred by the Company, the Nabob Wallajah, in 1787, bound himself and his successors to pay fifteen lacks of star pagodas (eight shillings sterling each) annually into the treasury at Madras; but, as many individuals also had claims upon the Nabob for money lent to him, or for other considerations, and he found himself unable to discharge all demands, Earl Cornwallis, in July, 1792, entered into a new treaty with him, by which the Company became bound to keep up constantly a sufficient force for the protection of the Carnatic, and accepted the Nabob's obligation to pay only nine lacks of pagodas annually, instead of fifteen; and also the further sum of 625,105 pagodas for the purpose of discharging his debts, to be paid annually till the whole should be completely liquidated. In virtue of this agreement, the Company's government took upon them, not only to make the payments to his private creditors, but also to weigh the validity and adjust the amount of their claims, many of which were of a disputable nature. For these purposes the Nabob put the Company in possession of a large tract of his country, the revenue of which they were to collect and employ according to the treaty, which was guaranteed by the British parliament. In 1801, the Nabob Azeem-ul-Dowlah, the grandson of Wallajah, made over to the Company the entire possession and government of the Carnatic, reserving to himself the title and dignity of Nabob, and one-fifth part of the net revenue for the support of himself and his family, besides jaghires (or pensions) allotted to his kindred and others, and several payments to charitable establishments, the Company undertaking to support a sufficient military force for the protection of

of the country, and for the honorary guard of his perſon and palace. In conſequence of theſe ſtipulations, the Company now ſtand in the place of the Nabob with reſpect to ſuch of the private debts as ſtill remain unſettled, amounting, as ſtated by the claimants, to 5,600,000*l.* ſterling, moſt of which are ſaid to be of about forty years' ſtanding. In order to bring theſe matters to a final ſettlement, the Company, with concurrence of the claimants, in July, 1805, appointed three gentlemen to be commiſſioners for inveſtigating the claims, and aſcertaining the ſum due to each perſon.

Death of Shah Aulum. On the 19th of November, 1805, this ſovereign, nominally one of the greateſt, but in reality perhaps the moſt degraded and abject in the world, died at Delhi. In 1788, he had been made priſoner by Gholam Khaudur, the commander of his own little army, who put out his eyes, plundered his treaſures, and inſulted the females of his family. This wicked ſervant was put to death by Scindia, one of the chiefs of the Mahrattas, who immediately took poſſeſſion of the territory allotted for the ſupport of the unfortunate monarch, and thenceforth kept him in the moſt miſerable indigence. He was afterward in the cuſtody of General Perron, a Frenchman, who held an independent ſovereignty in his own hands, but who did not improve the condition of the unfortunate Mogul. In September, 1803, he fell into the power of the Engliſh, and an honourable ſupport was allotted to him, which continued during his life, and is ſtill enjoyed by his family.

Mahratta War. In 1802, the Company's governments in India were drawn into a war againſt ſome of the Mahratta princes; by the victorious termination of which, in 1805, a very conſiderable addition was made to their territories.

Trade Opened. It is impoſſible to contemplate without aſtoniſhment the progreſs of the government in India, originating in a mere toleration for trading purpoſes, and growing in ſo ſhort a ſpace of time to an abſolute dominion over an extenſive tract of country, peopled with more than forty millions of native inhabitants. The queſtion of an open trade with this vaſt dominion had long engaged a great portion of attention both in the legiſlature and in the public, when, on the renewal of the Company's charter, four acts were paſſed of the higheſt importance to the Company and the public.

By the firſt of theſe, 53 Geo. III. c. 155. the territorial poſſeſſions in India, with the late acquiſitions on the continent of Aſia, or in any iſland north of the equator, are to remain in the government of the Eaſt India Company for twenty years, from the 10th of April, 1814. The Company have alſo the excluſive monopoly of the trade to and from China, for the like term

term of years. Private traders, ſubjects of His Majeſty, in the united kingdom, may export goods to any port or place within the limits of the Company's charter, provided the return cargoes are ſent to ſuch ports only in Great Britain and Ireland as ſhall be ſpecified by an order of His Majeſty in council in Great Britain, and by the Lord Lieutenant and council in Ireland.

Ships in the private trade ſhall not proceed to any place within the limits of the Company's charter on the continent of Aſia, from the river Indus to the town of Malacca, or to any of their iſlands lying to the north of the equator, or to their factory of Bencoolen, without a licence from the Court of Directors; nor, unleſs ſpecially authoriſed, to any places except one of their principal ſettlements of Fort William, Fort St. George, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's Iſland. Special licences to be granted by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Controul. No ſhips to proceed further to the northward than 11 degrees ſouth latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees eaſt longitude from London (except the ports and places already mentioned) without a licence from the Board of Controul. No ſhip or veſſel, whoſe regiſtered meaſurement is not leſs than 350 tons, except packets.

Perſons deſirous of going to and remaining in India, may, on application, obtain a certificate for that purpoſe from the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Controul; and, ſo long as they ſhall conduct themſelves properly, ſhall be entitled to the countenance and protection of the ſeveral governments within the limits of the Company's charter. All perſons, on their arrival, ſhall be ſubject to the regulations of the Company's local governments. If any ſuch perſon ſhall ſo conduct himſelf as in the judgment of the governments in India reſpectively, to have forfeited his claim to their countenance and protection, his certificate of reſidence may, by their order, be declared void; and ſuch perſon ſhall be deemed and taken to be a perſon reſiding there without licence or authority. No perſon whoſe certificate ſhall have been void, as above mentioned, ſhall be liable to any proſecution for reſiding in India without a licence, until two months after notice of ſuch order, by publication in the Preſidency Gazette, or by a copy of ſuch order left with the ſaid perſon. No Britiſh ſubject ſhall reſide within the limits of the Company's charter, from the 10th of April, 1814, unleſs authoriſed by law, or by a licence or certificate from the Court of Directors. The governor-general, or governor of any of the preſidencies, may, by ſpecial licence, authoriſe the reſidence of any Britiſh ſubject within the ſaid limits until the pleaſure of the

Court of Directors ſhall be known. The Board of Controul may, by licence in writing, authoriſe any perſon to proceed to and reſide at any place more to the northward than 11 degrees of ſouth latitude, and between the 64th and 150th degrees of eaſt longitude from London, and not being upon the continent of Aſia, between the river Indus and the town of Malacca inclusive, nor in any iſland under the Company's government lying north of the equator, nor at the Company's factory at Bencoolen nor at China.

Britiſh ſubjects may proceed to and reſide at any place ſituate more to the ſouthward than eleven degrees of ſouth latitude, or more to the weſtward than ſixty-four degrees, or more to the eaſtward than 150 degrees of eaſt longitude from London, for any lawful purpoſes, without a licence.

If any Britiſh ſubjects, other than ſuch as ſhall be licenced by the Company, ſhall, during the further term hereby granted, ſail or trade within the limits of the Company's charter, ſuch perſons ſhall be deemed to have unlawfully traded there, and, together with all others concerned, the ſhips, goods, treaſure, &c. found on board, ſhall be ſubject to the like penalties, forfeitures, and methods of ſuit, as are contained in the acts of the 33d of the King, or in any act in force for ſecuring the rights of the Company, and reſtraining clandeſtine and illicit trade.

Upon information of ſuch an offence being exhibited by the advocate-general, or other principal law officer of the Company, in any of the ſupreme courts at any of the preſidencies, the offender ſhall, on proof thereof, pay a fine not exceeding 2000 rupees; in caſe of a ſecond offence, a fine not exceeding 4000 rupees; and in each caſe be impriſoned until the fine be paid. Such ſubject offending after conviction, may be proſecuted for a miſdemeanor, or ſent to any part of the United Kingdom.

By the 54th Geo. III. c. 34. Britiſh ſubjects may trade to any intermediate port or place between the United Kingdom and the limits of the charter of the Eaſt India Company, ſituate in North and South America, (except any Britiſh colony in America), and to the Iſland of Madeira, the Canaries, and Cape de Verds Iſlands, the Iſland of Saint Helena, and the Cape of Good Hope, and take on board any goods which can be legally carried from any of ſuch intermediate ports or places. Britiſh ſubjects may alſo carry on trade in ſhips navigated according to law, directly or circuitouſly, between all ports and places within the limits of the Company's charter, except the dominions of the Emperor of China.

Two other ſtatutes confirm the right of ſhips not built in Great Britain to enter into trade, and fix the duties on goods imported, and modes of paying them. The ſtatutes contain many other highly important regulations.

GOVERN-

Government and Establishments at Home.

In the preceding pages, the origin and progreſs of the government of India have been narrated at ſo much length, that no very detailed deſcription of the government and eſtabliſhments at home will be required.

Board of Controul. The conſtitution of this board has already been mentioned. It is compoſed of a preſident and eleven other members; and has a ſecretary, an aſſiſtant, an accountant, with proper clerks and other officers. Its eſtabliſhment is at Whitehall.

Directors. The directors are twenty-four in number, of whom ſix retire every year, but are re-eligible in the year following. They are under the preſidency of a chairman and deputy chairman, each appointed for a year. The directors are formed into committees under the following heads: — Accounts, buying and warehouſes, civil college, correſpondence, government troops and ſtores, houſe, law-ſuits, library, military fund, military ſeminary, private trade, ſhipping, ſtud, and treaſury. Of theſe committees different directors are members, but the chairman and his deputy are members of them all. Their duties are ſufficiently denoted by their appellations.

East India House. The ancient hall of the Eaſt India Company, being too ſmall for the tranſaction of their extenſive buſineſs, a houſe was erected about 1725 in Leadenhall-ſtreet, which they hold in fee-ſimple. About the year 1788, it became again neceſſary to enlarge this building: meaſures were taken for acquiring the property in the adjacent houſes and land, and particularly in Lime-ſtreet. The buildings were chiefly of lath and plaſter, and occupied in various ways by different tenants. When the Company had determined to extend their houſe eaſtward, it became neceſſary to obtain an act for that purpoſe; and after ſeveral years labour, aroſe a moſt magnificent edifice. The centre has a portico, with ſix Ionic pillars fluted. The frieze is ſculptured with various antique ornaments; and the tympanum of the pediment contains a crowd of emblematic figures, relating to their commerce, protected by His Majeſty, who is repreſented in alto relievo, extending over them a ſhield, held in his right hand. On the point of the pediment, a ſtatue of Britannia. On the eaſt corner, a figure of Aſia on a dromedary; and at the weſt, one of Europe. Thoſe are all very excellent. The baſement is truly proportioned, and the windows are arched; but thoſe above are not. The principal entrance under the portico has a handſome

pediment over it, and two windows on each ſide. From the hall a long paſſage extends ſouthward, on the left ſide of which are ſeveral apartments, occupied by clerks: it is terminated by a court, whoſe ſides are offices of various deſignations. In it are two braſs guns, brought from the arſenal of Tippoo, remarkable for their length, and the tigers' heads on them; the muzzles exhibit the extended jaws of that ferocious animal, extremely well executed. On the right hand of the entry is the court-room, a moſt ſuperb apartment. The chimney-piece on the eaſt wall is of fine marble, and almoſt covers that ſide. Two caryatides of ſtatuary, on pedeſtals of veined marble, richly ornamented, ſupport the cornice, which, with the brackets and other ſculptures, are white. Directly over the fire-place is a tablet of white marble, and on it the following deſign in baſ-relief. Britannia ſitting on a globe under a rock on the ſea-ſhore, looking eaſtward; her right arm leaning on a ſhield, with the Union Croſs, holding a trident in her left hand: her head adorned with a roſtral crown: emblems of ſovereignty and victory at ſea. Behind Britannia, two boys; one leaning on a cornucopia, looking up to her; and the other playing with the riches flowing from it: emblems of the advantages that accrue from trade and navigation to poſterity. Before Britannia are three female figures, repreſenting India, Aſia, and Africa. Near the ſhore an old river god, repreſenting the Thames, leaning on his urn. The Company's arms are placed over the whole, with ſtuccoed ornaments on each ſide. The doors, decorations, mirrors, and pictures, are equally beautiful and well adapted.

The ſouth-eaſt door opens into a ſmall committee-room. The great north door opens to the old ſale-room, the weſt end of which is circular; and over the chair a ſky light. A conſiderable flight of ſteps aſcends eaſtward, for the accommodation of bidders. On the platform at the top, is a doric colonade; the intercolumniations guarded by baluſtrades. This room receives additional light from ſeveral windows on the north ſide. The room for the committee of correſpondence is large, and ſplendidly fitted up. A new ſale-room has been erected at the eaſt end of the building, which is lighted from the ceiling.

The Company's architects were Meſſrs. Jupp and Holland. The upper part of the building contains nothing to deſcribe. One vaſt chamber is a repoſitory of their books, which amount to an aſtoniſhing number, and are ranged in preſſes projecting into the midſt of the room.

Warehouses. The warehouſes extend from New-ſtreet, ſouth-eaſt, almoſt to Houndſditch. When they were begun, a ſtone was placed in the corner houſe of the above and Biſhopſgate-ſtreets, inſcribed, "This wall, 93 feet in length from eaſt

eaſt to weſt, and from the face of this ſtone eighteen inches in ſubſtance, is the property of the Eaſt India Company. Erected at the ſole charge of the Company, May 26, 1776. At the ſame time the ground eighteen feet ſouth from this ſtone, which had been purchaſed by the Eaſt India Company, was given to the public, for widening the entrance into this ſtreet." Theſe warehouſes have grand fronts of ſeveral hundred feet in length. The weſtern ſide next Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, conſiſts of a body and two wings. The baſement at each end is ruſtic; and there are no windows in the building, except in this part. A neat cornice and coping finiſh the top; and the wings are ornamented with blank doric windows and pediments. The arch of entrance is in the ſouth wing, whence they extend up the ſouth ſide of New-ſtreet. The body of this part retires from the ſtreet, and the wings are connected by a ſtrong wall, with ruſtic gates. The great height of the buildings, the number of ſtories, multitudes of windows, and curious cranes for hoiſting the goods, all create ſurpriſe and wonder. Two handſome houſes terminate the warehouſes near Houndſditch, in which the officers that govern them reſide. Between them is a fine gateway. Several wretched ſtreets, and ſome hundreds of habitations, were removed to carry on thoſe works. The ſpace of pure air thus obtained muſt be of eſſential ſervice in ſuch a neighbourhood.

Officers. It would be tedious and unintereſting to attempt a liſt of the officers employed to carry on this great concern. Among the principal are the ſecretary, with his deputy, the examiner of Indian correſpondence, the treaſurer, the accountant-general, the accountants in the different departments, and the clerks to the ſeveral committees; there are various other officers, and many clerks employed under them. The beſt notion of the large number of perſons engaged in all the departments of the India Houſe, including the labourers, may be derived from the fact, that during the late wars, they formed three entire regiments of infantry, and His Majeſty was ſo ſatisfied with their quality and appearance, that he graciouſly allowed them to uſe ſix pieces of artillery.

Docks. The ſhips employed by the Eaſt India Company being larger than thoſe in any other trade, they were obliged to lie many miles below that part of the river which is properly the harbour of London; and their cargoes being of great value and national importance, the depredations to which they were expoſed, were felt as a ſerious evil by the Company and the owners of the ſhips, and alſo by the government, in the defalcation of the revenue, which the embezzled goods ought to have paid. The uſe of ſufficient wet docks, in which the ſhips may be loaded and unloaded, being judged the only remedy for

the evil, a number of gentlemen were incorporated as a joint ſtock company, with a capital of 200,000*l.*, and with power to enlarge it as far as 300,000*l.* if neceſſary, for the purpoſe of conſtructing wet docks incloſed by proper walls and ditches, and communicating with the river Thames, to be appropriated ſolely to the ſhips in the India trade. The buſineſs of this company is conducted by thirteen Directors, of whom four muſt be Directors of the Eaſt India Company. Their profits are reſtricted to ten per cent.; and they muſt not engage in building or repairing ſhips, nor be any way concerned in ſhipping. They are entitled to receive a duty of fourteen ſhillings for every ton of the regiſtered meaſurement of each Britiſh-built ſhip, and twelve ſhillings per ton for India-built veſſels navigated by Laſcars. The hatches of every ſhip arriving from India or China muſt be locked down before her arrival at Graveſend; and the captain, or one of the two officers next to him in command, muſt remain on board till ſhe is moored in the docks, and the keys delivered to an officer of the Eaſt India Company. The Company are required to provide covered waggons or caravans, ſecurely locked, for conveying their goods from the docks to their warehouſes. Theſe regulations, with many others of inferior general importance, were enacted by parliament in the years 1803 and 1806. [Acts 43 Geo. III., c. 126; 46 Geo. III. c. 113.] The docks have been completed according to the propoſed plan, and are found beneficial to all concerned with them. Of this undertaking ſome further notice occurs in vol. iii. p. 472.

Hertford College. From the days of Lord Clive until very lately, the want of proper inſtruction to young men ſent out to India, in the civil and military departments, was the frequent ſubject of remonſtrance and complaint. The Company, with their uſual zeal, ſpirit and munificence, undertook to remedy the evil; and for that purpoſe have founded and completed, near the town of Hertford, a moſt magnificent eſtabliſhment for the education of perſons intended for civil employ; and the legiſlature has declared, by the ſtatute 55 Geo. III. already ſo much cited, that the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Controul, may make rules and regulations for the good government of the college. The Lord Biſhop of London is empowered to exerciſe viſitatorial power and juriſdiction.

Admission. In the firſt place, as the introduction to this college is with a view to the civil ſervice, it is neceſſary to note, that by a reſolution of the Court of Directors of the 9th of Auguſt, 1809, any perſon who ſhall be nominated to a ſituation, either civil or military, and ſhall have obtained ſuch nomination

mination in conſequence of purchaſe, or agreement to purchaſe, or of any corrupt practice whatever, either direct or indirect, by himſelf or by any other perſon, with or without his privity, ſhall be rejected from the ſervice of the Company, and ordered back to England, if he ſhall have proceeded to India before a diſcovery of ſuch corrupt practice be made: and if ſuch ſituation ſhall have been ſo corruptly procured by himſelf, or with his privity, he ſhall be rendered incapable of holding that or any other ſituation whatever in the ſaid ſervice. Provided always, that if a fair diſcloſure of any corrupt tranſaction or practice, of the nature before deſcribed, wherein any Director has been concerned, ſhall be voluntarily made by the party or parties engaged in the ſame with ſuch Director, the appointment thereby procured ſhall be confirmed by the Court.

No candidate can be nominated until he has completed the ſixteenth year of his age: and no perſon who has been in the army or navy, or has been expelled from any place of education, will be nominated to the college. The nomination muſt be by a Director, to whom the parents or guardians of the candidate muſt addreſs a letter, in a preſcribed form; and as by the act 33 Geo. III. no perſon can be appointed a writer whoſe age exceeds twenty-two years, and by the act of the 53d Geo. III. all ſtudents for the college muſt remain there four terms, conſequently, no perſon whoſe age exceeds twenty can be nominated as a ſtudent. Certificates are required of the time and place of birth, which muſt be verified by affidavits. The candidates are alſo to produce certificates from the perſons under whom they have received their education, ſtating the nature of that education, and the proficiency they have made; and alſo certifying as to their mental ability, diſpoſition and character. They are interrogated in an open committee of college as to their character, connexions, and qualifications. They are examined in the claſſics and arithmetic; and if they are not found to poſſeſs a competent knowledge of at leaſt two of the Latin claſſics, the eaſier parts of the Greek teſtament, and the principles of grammar, as well as the common rules of arithmetic, together with vulgar and decimal fractions, are remanded until the commencement of the next term. Miſconduct of ſtudents at college is attended with expulſion; and thoſe who do not paſs with credit the final examination, cannot be admitted into the civil ſervice. No perſon expelled can be admitted into any line of the Company's ſervice.

There are two terms in a year: the one extending from the 19th of January to the 31ſt of May; the other from the 27th July to the 21ſt of December. One hundred guineas per annum are paid for each ſtudent, one moiety at the beginning

of each term, beſides books and ſtationery, and ten guineas on leaving, for the uſe of the philoſophical apparatus and library.

By the 55th of the King, the Court of Directors ſhall not appoint any perſon in the capacity of a writer, unleſs he ſhall have been duly entered at the college, and ſhall have reſided there four terms. No order for the appointment of any officer or principal of the ſaid college, or head maſter of the military ſeminary, can be valid, until approved by the Board of Controul; and every ſpiritual perſon holding the ſituation of principal or profeſſor in the ſaid college is exempted from reſidence on any benefice of which he may be poſſeſſed.

The college is under the direction of a principal, profeſſors in mathematics and natural philoſophy, claſſical and general literature, hiſtory and political economy, general polity and the laws of England, Hindû literature and hiſtory of Aſia, Arabic, Perſian, and Hindûſtanni literature, with writing-maſters for the different languages, and other proper inſtructors.

On a ſtudent's appointment to be a writer, a legal inſtrument is to be entered into by ſome one perſon (to be approved by the Court of Directors), binding himſelf to pay the ſum of 3000*l.* as liquidated damages to the Company, for breach of a covenant to be entered into, that the ſtudent's nomination has not been in any way bought, or ſold, or exchanged for any thing convertible into a pecuniary benefit.

College School. Beſide this college, the Company patroniſe a ſchool ſubordinate to it, and under the ſuperintendance of the principal, into which boys may be admitted at an early age, and in which they are taught the elements of general learning, and ſuch other accompliſhments as are the uſual objects of inſtruction in the larger ſeminaries of this country. Eſpecial attention is paid alſo to ſuch parts of education as may ſerve to qualify them for public buſineſs, and for the higher departments of commercial life. Although this ſchool is deſigned as introductory to the college, it is not to be underſtood that the Company is pledged to make it the ſole medium of an appointment to the college itſelf; but yet the advantages of uniform and conſiſtent inſtruction are too obvious to be pointed out. To the head maſter of this ſchool, the annual ſum of ſeventy guineas is paid for each pupil above the age of ten years, and fifty guineas for each under that age; which ſums, without any additional charge, include inſtructions in the Greek, Latin, and modern languages, writing, arithmetic, mathematics, drawing, and dancing. A few pupils of a more advanced age are received at one hundred guineas, to whom ſome ſuperior accommodations are granted. Pupils are alſo

qualified

qualified in this ſchool to paſs their examinations for admiſſion into the Company's military ſeminary.

MILITARY SEMINARY. This eſtabliſhment was formed in purſuance of a reſolution of the Court of Directors of the 24th of November 1815, and is placed at Addiſcombe in Surry. There are two regular admiſſions annually, in the months of January and July, and the cadets are not received at an earlier age than fourteen, nor at a later period than the next admiſſion after they have attained the age of ſixteen years. They are required to remain at the ſeminary four terms, or two years, from the date of their actually joining the inſtitution; excepting where ſtudents may be found, on public examination, qualified for the ſcientific branches of the profeſſion in leſs than four terms; and in that caſe, ſuch ſtudents are allowed, on proper certificates, to proceed to India. Each cadet muſt bring with him certain neceſſaries. At the annual public examination, at which it is provided that not leſs than five members of the ſeminary committee ſhall always be preſent, it is left to the public examiner to recommend to the committee the ſelection of the numbers required for the engineers and artillery, according to their degree of talent, acquirements, and good conduct; care being taken to appriſe him, in the firſt inſtance, of the numbers actually wanted for thoſe corps; and the remaining cadets to be ſent to the infantry line of ſervice. The cadets drafted as above for the infantry, take rank of all other cadets of the ſame ſeaſon, nominated to thoſe corps; excepting thoſe who may have held His Majeſty's commiſſion for twelve months. Every cadet appointed to the ſeminary under this ſyſtem is required to pay the ſum of thirty pounds into the Company's treaſury, previous to his admiſſion, and the further ſum of thirty pounds at the expiration of a year, toward defraying the Company's annual expence incurred for his board, lodging, and education. Every cadet, previous to his admiſſion into the ſeminary, is required to provide two ſureties for the due payment of theſe ſums, and for the reimburſement of all expences above that amount, in the event of his not proceeding to India from any of the cauſes mentioned in the ſaid bond.

In conſideration of the thirty pounds per annum, each cadet is allowed, during his continuance at the ſeminary, two ſhillings and ſixpence per week for pocket money, ſupplied with neceſſary clothing, books, ſtationery, drawing and mathematical inſtruments; and the ſeminary is furniſhed with philoſophical inſtruments, and the requiſite apparatus and materials to purſue the courſes of chemical lectures. The woollen clothes are of ſuperfine cloth. The cadets alſo have linen, when neceſſary in the opinion of the head maſter.

They

They have a public examiner of conſiderable rank in the artillery, profeſſors in mathematics, claſſics, fortification and artillery, and oriental languages, with proper inſtructors in French, drawing, military exerciſes, and other uſeful branches of knowledge.

DEBT AND FINANCE. To treat on theſe ſubjects in detail would occupy a great ſpace, and require calculations and inveſtigations both extenſive and minute. Purſuing a report of the Houſe of Commons on this ſubject in 1811, Mr. Colquhoun, in his excellent treatiſe on the wealth, power, and reſources of the Britiſh Empire, has given a copious detail; the reſult is, that the annual balance in favour of the Company, might, in thoſe diſadvantageous times, be eſtimated at 385,457*l.* after payment of the intereſt on their debt, and all the charges of their eſtabliſhments at home and abroad, the expenditure, amounting to 19,394,979*l.*: or, in another view, that the Company's debts were,

	In India.	In England.	Total.
Bearing intereſt	27,414,697	7,365,900	
Without intereſt	4,813,165	6,520,531	
£	32,227,862	13,886,431	46,114,293

Their aſſets were, in quick ſtock, compriſing caſh, bills receivable, goods, ſalt, opium, rum, grain, cattle, bonds and debts of every deſcription, &c.; and dead ſtock, including buildings, fortifications, plate, houſehold furniture, plantations, farms, veſſels, ſtores, &c.: which were ſtated as follows:

	In India.	In England.	Total.
Quick - -	25,821,587	11,164,955	36,986,542
Dead - -	10,870,132	1,208,020	12,078,152
£	36,691,719	12,372,975	49,064,694

leaving a balance in favour of the Company of 2,950,401*l.*

On a preſumption, therefore, ſays the ſame author, that the floating available property of the Company, amounting as above to 36,986,542*l.*, could be turned into money, and applied with convenience to the payment of the debt above mentioned of 46,114,293*l.*, the debt due would be reduced, as it may be virtually ſaid to be reduced, to 9,127,751*l.*; againſt which may be placed, not only the dead or unproductive property, which coſt in all 12,078,152*l.*, but alſo the annual amount of the territorial and other revenues and profits on trade, making in the whole an aggregate of 19,780,436*l.* Out of which it may be reaſonably expected that a conſiderable ſurplus will ariſe, now that warlike expeditions againſt European enemies are at an

end, and the power of the native princes, who have hitherto been hoſtilely diſpoſed, is either totally annihilated, or ſo much reduced as to hold out the proſpect of a long period of peace in Britiſh India; thereby affording an opportunity, not only of reducing the immenſe military eſtabliſhment, but alſo of aboliſhing much of the enormous expence which attaches to the civil inſtitutions. In ſo far as theſe expences can be diminiſhed, in the ſame proportion will the ſurplus revenue be augmented. And in the operation of this more economical ſyſtem, a larger proportion of the annual profits of the labour of the people of India muſt center in the parent ſtate than can be expected from the fortunes of individuals in the Company's ſervice, inaſmuch as a conſiderable part of the incomes of theſe individuals muſt be expended in India. A ſeries of years of uninterrupted peace will afford time to correct abuſes, and to introduce economy and regularity into every part of this ſyſtem; the reſult of which muſt be, not only a conſiderable increaſe of revenue, but alſo a great diminution of the preſent unexampled expence, both at home and abroad.

British India in general. Having thus copiouſly abridged the hiſtory and general regulations of the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India, it remains, in the firſt place, to offer a view of their ſituation, eſtabliſhments, and government.

The great Empire which England has eſtabliſhed in the eaſt, Colonel Malcolm obſerves, will be the theme of wonder to ſucceeding ages. That a ſmall iſland in the Atlantic ſhould have conquered and held the vaſt continent of India as a ſubject province, is, in itſelf, a fact, which can never be ſtated without exciting aſtoniſhment. But the ſurpriſe will be increaſed, when it is added, that this great conqueſt was made, not by the collective force of the nation, but by a company of merchants, who, originally veſted with a charter of excluſive commerce, and with the privilege and right to protect their property, and to retaliate attack, were in a few years hurried, by the enterpriſe and ambition of their agents, the hoſtile and rival ſpirit of the other nations of Europe, and the weakneſs and perfidy of the princes of Aſia, to whom they became, from their encroachments or their riches, an object of jealouſy or plunder, into the poſſeſſion of royal power, and actually found themſelves called upon to act in the character of ſovereigns over extended kingdoms, before they had ceaſed to be the mercantile directors of petty factories. The ſituation of a dependent ſtate, ſays the ſame author, with a population of fifty millions, at the diſtance of ten thouſand miles from the principal ſtate, and ſurrounded by governments without faith, or even long-ſighted prudence, is unparalleled in the hiſtory of the

the world. Such however is the Britiſh empire in India. From beyond the mouth of the Ganges to Cape Comorin, and from that ſouthern extremity in the mouth of the Indus, the Company have the command of that immenſe extent of coaſt, except the trifling ſettlement of the Portugueſe and the Poona Mahrattas, who are bound by treaty to admit no ſhip into their ports that does not carry Engliſh colours.

HINDOSTAN IN GENERAL. The portion of Aſia which is called Hindoſtan, extends from Cape Comari, called by navigators Comorin, in the ſouth, to the mountains which form the northern boundary of Caſhmir; that is, according to the moſt recent maps, from about the eighth to about the thirty-fifth degree of northern latitude, being twenty-ſeven degrees, or 1620 geographical miles, nearly equal to 1890 Britiſh. The boundaries are marked on the north by the mountains above mentioned. On the weſt, toward Perſia, other ranges and deſerts conſtitute the frontier, till the ſouthern ſeparation ends in the river of Araba. The other boundaries are ſupplied by the Indian ocean and the bay of Bengal, where the eaſtern extremity is limited by the little river Naaf, and thoſe mountains which divide the Britiſh poſſeſſions from Aracan, Caſſay, and Caſhar. The northern boundary generally conſiſts of the ſouthern ridges of the Tibetian Alps. On the north-eaſt of Bengal, a ſimilar ridge divides Hindoſtan from the ſmall territory of Aſſam, which ſeems an independent ſtate, never having formed a portion of Hindoſtan, of dubious connexion with Tibet, and as yet unſubdued by the Birmans.

In this country, the Britiſh, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam, may be regarded as the three leading powers; to which may be added on the weſt, or on the Sindetic diviſion, the Seiks, and Zemaun Shah, or whatever prince holds the eaſtern diviſion of Perſia.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS. The Britiſh poſſeſſions in 1802 were, 1. Bengal and Bahar, with the Zemindary of Benares. 2. Northern Circars, including Guntoor. 3. Barra Mahal, and Dindigul. 4. Jaghire in the Carnatic. 5. The Calicut, Palicaud, and Coorga countries. The termination of the war with the Mahrattas in 1805, afforded a conſiderable addition to theſe territories, beſides conſolidating the Britiſh power, and effectually precluding all fear of combinations among the natives; while, on the other hand, every thing was done which a liberal policy could ſuggeſt, to prevent thoſe who had been vanquiſhed from repining at their condition. Thus has the Britiſh nation acquired the vaſt extent of dominion already alluded to, while the natives, ſince the peace in 1805, have enjoyed more happineſs

pineſs and freedom than they ever knew ſince the days of their Emperor Aurengzebe.

The following table is ſuppoſed to contain a correct view of the extent and population of the Britiſh provinces and dependencies:

	Geographical Square Miles.	Population.
Bengal, Bahar, and Benares -	162,000	29,000,000
Acquiſitions in Hindoſtan Proper and Oriſſa ſince 1799 - -	60,000	10,000,000
Under the Bengal Preſidency	222,000	39,000,000
Under the Juriſdiction of the Madras Preſidency - - -	125,000	12,000,000
Do. Bombay Preſidency -	10,000	2,500,000
Total of Britiſh Hindoſtan	357,000	53,500,000
Britiſh Allies and Tributaries:		
The Nizam - - - -	76,000	8,000,000
The Peſhwa and Guicowar -	53,000	5,000,000
Nabob of Oude - - -	13,000	2,000,000
Myſore Rajah - - - -	22,000	2,000,000
Travancor and Cochin Rajahs -	5,000	500,000
Total under Britiſh juriſdiction and influence - -	526,000	71,000,000

Rivers.—Hindoſtan is watered by many noble rivers: thoſe which are principally uſeful to the Britiſh part, are the Ganges, the Burampooter, and the Jumna, with their tributary ſtreams.

The Ganges.—The Ganges muſt ſtill be conſidered as the ſacred ſovereign of the Hindoo rivers, an attribute not infringed by the recent diſcovery of the Burampooter. In the Hindoo mythology, indeed, this ſtream makes a moſt conſpicuous figure, and is the ſubject of many extravagant fables. The ſource of this river has never been correctly aſcertained. Until 1807, all the maps repreſented it flowing within the Himalaya chain of ſnowy mountains many hundred miles, from an imaginary lake, named Mapana, to Gangoutri. In 1808 an expedition was ſent by the Bengal Government expreſsly to ſurvey the ſources of the Ganges. From the information thus obtained, no doubt remained but that the ſource of the river is more remote than the place called Gangoutri, which is merely the point whence it iſſues from Himalaya, not,

as

as related, through a ſecret paſſage or cavern reſembling a cow's mouth; but its current is perceptible beyond that place, although the acceſs is ſo obſtructed as to exclude further ſearch. After iſſuing from the mountains near Hurdwar, to the conflux with the Jumna at Allahabad, the firſt large river that joins it, the bed of the Ganges is generally from a mile to a mile and a quarter wide. From hence its courſe becomes more winding, and its bed wider, until having ſucceſſively received the *Goggrah*, the *Soane*, and the *Gunduck*, beſide many ſmaller ſtreams, its channel attains its full width, as it afterward in ſome parts becomes ſo narrow as half a mile; and, where no iſlands intervene, is in ſome places three miles wide. When at its loweſt, the principal channel varies from 400 yards to a mile and a quarter in width, but is commonly about three-fourths of a mile. The Ganges is fordable at ſome places above its conflux with the Jumna, but the navigation is never interrupted. At 500 miles from the ſea the channel is thirty feet deep when the river is at the loweſt; which depth continues to the ſea, where the ſudden expanſion of the ſtream deprives it of the force neceſſary to ſweep away the bars of ſand and mud thrown acroſs it by the ſtrong ſoutherly winds; ſo that the principal branch of the Ganges cannot be entered by large veſſels. In the courſe through the plains, the Ganges receives eleven rivers, ſome of which are equal to the Rhine, and none ſmaller than the Thames, beſides a great many others of leſſer note. The largeſt tributary ſtreams to the Ganges, in Bengal and Bahar, are the Goggrah, the Soane, and the Cooſy, or Coſa.

The Goggrah.—This river has its ſource in the mountains to the north of Hindoſtan, but the exact ſituation has never been aſcertained. It falls into the Sareyn (Sarjew) at Swargadwara; the united ſtreams afterward being named indifferently the Goggrah, Sarjew, or Deva river. It flows through the diſtrict of Kemaoon and province of Oude, and joins the Ganges in the province of Bahar.

The Soane. The rivers Soane and Nerbudda have their ſources in the table land of Omercuntuc, in the province of Gundwana. The Soane riſes on the eaſt ſide, and flows through Pindarah, where, being joined by numerous other ſtreams from the north-eaſt ſide of this mountainous territory, it proceeds in a northerly direction through Sohagepoor and Bogalecund, whence turning to the eaſtward, it flows on to the Ganges, in the province of Bahar, after having performed a winding courſe of about 500 miles. Near its origin, this river is ſaid to be called by the natives the Sonabudda, to diſtinguiſh it from

from the Nerbudda, by which, conjointly with the Ganges, the ſouthern part of Hindoſtan is inſulated.

The Cooſy or *Coſa.* This river has its ſource in the Himalaya mountains, to the north of Nepaul, from whence it purſues a S. S. E. direction, and after a winding courſe of about 400 miles, joins the Ganges in the Bengal diſtrict of Purneah. Formerly this junction took place oppoſite to Rajemal, but it is now forty-five miles higher up.

The Burampooter or *Brahmapootra.* This is the largeſt river of India. Its ſources have never been explored; but it is probable they are ſeparated from thoſe of the Ganges only by a narrow range of ſnow-clad peaks, about the thirty-ſecond degree of north latitude, and eighty-ſecond of eaſt longitude. From hence the Brahmapootra takes its courſe eaſtward through the country of Tibet, north of the Himalaya mountains, where it is known by the name of Sanpoo, or Zanchoo. In its courſe eaſtward, it paſſes to the north of Teſhoo Loomboo, the reſidence of Teſhoo Lama, where it is ſtiled Enchoomboo; and thence flows in a wide extended bed, through many channels, and forming a multitude of iſlands. Its principal channel is deſcribed as narrow, but deep, and never fordable. It receives the tributary waters of the Painomtchieu, and many other ſtreams, before it paſſes Laſſa, and penetrates the frontier mountains that divide Tibet from Aſſam. It takes a vaſt circuit through the mountains before it enters the latter kingdom, and approaches within 220 miles of Yunan, the moſt weſtern province of China. Here it turns ſuddenly weſt through Aſſam, where receiving a copious ſupply from that region of rivers, it ruſhes with increaſed volume below Rangamatty, on the borders of Bengal. From hence it haſtens to meet the Ganges; theſe rivers being nearly related in their birth, as well as united in their termination. After entering Bengal, it makes a weſtern point of the Garrow mountains; and then altering its courſe to the ſouth, in the Dacca province, is joined by the Megna, which, although not the tenth part of its ſize, moſt unaccountably abſorbs its name, and communicates its own to the great maſs of waters, until they intermix with thoſe of the Ganges, near the bay of Bengal. The whole known courſe of this river, including its windings, may be eſtimated at 1650 miles; but it is the fate of the Brahmapootra to penetrate a rude climate and ſtubborn ſoil, ſeldom approaching the habitation of civilized men; while the Ganges, on the contrary, flows along a fertile territory, and through rich and poliſhed nations. Until 1765 the Brahmapootra was unknown in Europe as a capital river of India.

This

This river, during a courſe of 400 miles through Bengal, bears ſo intimate a reſemblance to the Ganges, that one deſcription anſwers both, except that during the laſt ſixty miles before their junction, under the name of Megna, it forms a ſtream which is regularly from four to five miles wide, and, but for its freſhneſs, might paſs for an arm of the ſea. The junction of theſe two mighty rivers below Luckipoor, now forms a gulph interſperſed with iſlands, ſome equal in ſize to the Iſle of Wight. The Bore, which is a ſudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or narrow ſtrait, prevails in the principal branches of the Ganges, and in the Megna; but the Hooghly river, and the paſſages between the iſlands and ſands, ſituated in the gulph, formed by the confluence of the Brahmapootra and Ganges, are more ſubject to it than the other rivers.

The Jumna. The ſource of this river has never been accurately explored; but it is probably not more remote than that of the Ganges, which riſes ſomewhere on the ſouth ſide of the great Himalaya mountains. Through the province of Serinagur it flows ſouth, in a line nearly parallel to the Ganges, from which, at the village of Gurudwar, lat. 30° 22′ N., it is only forty miles diſtant, and has as broad a ſtream. In this part of its courſe it abounds with fiſh, but the inhabitants are at no pains to catch them. The Jumna enters Hindoſtan Proper in the province of Delhi, and proceeds ſouth nearly in a line with the Ganges, at the diſtance of from fifty to ſeventy-five miles from each other, until they gradually join at Allahabad; when the Jumna, although little inferior in magnitude, has its name abſorbed by the larger and more holy ſtream. Including the windings, the length of its courſe may be eſtimated at 780 miles. The Jumna is only a uſeful barrier to the Britiſh territories during the rainy ſeaſon, when military operations are, from the general ſtate of the country, almoſt impracticable. It is fordable in ſeveral places above Agra before the firſt of October, and cannot be looked upon as a boundary of any ſtrength above its junction with the Chumbul, ten miles below Etaweh, for more than a few weeks in the wet ſeaſon. From Calpee to its junction with the Ganges there is no obſtruction, and only one place between Kalpy and Etaweh where, in the dry ſeaſon, the paſſage is rendered in ſome degree difficult by a bank of limeſtone, which it was the intention of the Britiſh Government, during the Marquis Welleſley's adminiſtration, to remove.

GOVERNMENTS.

In conſidering the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India, they will be viewed as divided into three governments—of Bengal, Madras or Fort St. George, and Bombay; and notice will alſo be taken of the inſular and other ſeparate eſtabliſhments. Under each head will be included the diviſions or poſſeſſions which, although not geographically, are politically compriſed within its demeſne.

BENGAL.

Bengal, as a government, includes not only the province properly ſo named, but Bahar, with Benares, part of Oriſſa, and ſome diſtricts to the weſt; in this extended ſenſe, it forms the baſis and centre of the Britiſh power in India.

Bengal is ſituated between the twenty-firſt and twenty-ſeventh degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of Nepaul and Bootan; to the ſouth by the Bay of Bengal; on the eaſt it has Aſſam and the Ava territories; and on the weſt, the province of Bahar. In length (including Midnapoor in Oriſſa) it may be eſtimated at 350 miles, by 300 miles, the average breadth. Before the ceſſions made by the Nabob of Oude in 1801, the regions immediately governed by the preſidency of Calcutta comprehended the whole ſoubahs of Bengal and Bahar, a part of the adjoining ſoubahs of Oriſſa, Allahabad, and Berar, and ſome tracts of country which had maintained their independence even in the moſt flouriſhing period of the Mogul empire: they conſiſt of part of the Morung, Cooch Bahar, and other diſtricts, which have become tributary ſince the Engliſh acquired their preſent influence in Bengal.

CLIMATE. The natives, from experience, aſſign ſix ſeaſons to the year, each containing two months. The ſpring and dry ſeaſon occupy four months, during which the heat progreſſively increaſes, until it becomes almoſt intolerable, even to thoſe born in the country. The ſcorched inhabitants are, at length, relieved by the rainy ſeaſon, which, in general, commences nearly at the ſame time throughout the whole province. During the firſt two months the rain is heavy and continual. In the two ſubſequent months the intervals are more frequent, and of longer duration, and the weather more ſultry. The rivers, and eſpecially the Ganges (which begins to riſe even before the rainy ſeaſon) continue to increaſe during the firſt two months of it, and the Ganges reaches its greateſt height in the third. By this time the rivers of Bengal are ſwollen, and the Delta of the Ganges overflowed. At the approach of winter the rivers begin to decreaſe, the ſhowers ceaſe to fall,

and the inundation gradually drains off, and evaporates. Fogs, the natural conſequence of ſuch evaporation in cold weather, are frequent in moſt parts of Bengal Proper. Dew, at this ſeaſon, is everywhere abundant and penetrating; and, in the higher latitudes of India, as well as in the mountainous tracts of it, froſt and extreme cold are experienced. Even in the flat country, ice is obtained by the ſimple artifice of aſſiſting evaporation in porous veſſels, although the atmoſphere is much warmer than the freezing temperature. Throughout the whole winter in Bengal, dews continue copious, and greatly aſſiſt vegetation, affording nearly as much moiſture as corn requires in ſo looſe a ſoil.

Soil and Produce. The general ſoil of Bengal is clay, with a conſiderable proportion of ſilicious ſand, fertilized by various ſalts, and by decayed ſubſtances, animal and vegetable. In Bengal and Bahar, only one-third of the land is eſtimated to be tilled, but this is excluſive of lays or fallows. Rice is the principal produce: of wheat and barley few ſorts are cultivated. Different ſorts of pulſe, (ſuch as peaſe, chiches, pigeon-peaſe, and kidney-beans,) conſtitute a valuable portion of the Bengal huſbandry, becauſe theſe vegetables thrive even on poor ſoils, and require but little culture. Millet and other ſmall grains are alſo of importance. Maize is leſs cultivated in Bengal than in moſt countries where it is acclimated. The univerſal and vaſt conſumption of vegetable oils is ſupplied by the extenſive cultivation of muſtard-ſeed, linſeed, ſeſamum, and palma-chriſti, beſides what is procured from the cocoa-nut. Among the moſt important of the productions of Bengal, are tobacco, ſugar, indigo, cotton, the mulberry and poppy; each of which requires land ſolely appropriated to its cultivation. The orchard chiefly contributes to attach the peaſant to his native ſoil. He feels a ſuperſtitious veneration for the trees planted by his anceſtors, and derives comfort and profit from their fruit. Theſe are formed of mango trees, the palmira, the cocoa-nut, and the date tree. Plantations of areca are common in the central parts of Bengal. The caſſia thrives even on the pooreſt ſoils, and abounds even on the hilly diſtricts. Its inflated corols are eſculent and nutritious, and yield, by diſtillation, an intoxicating ſpirit. The oil expreſſed from its ſeeds is, in mountainous diſtricts, a common ſubſtitute for butter. Clumps of bamboos abound and flouriſh as long as they are not too abruptly thinned. This plant is remarkable for the rapidity of its growth. Its greateſt height is completed in a ſingle year; and, during the ſecond, its wood acquires all the hardneſs and elaſticity which render it ſo uſeful. It ſupplies the peaſant with materials for building, and may alſo yield him profit,

profit, as it is probable a ſingle acre of thriving bamboos produces more wood than ten of any other tree. Potatoes have been introduced, and apparently with beneficial effect. Aſparagus, cauliflower, and other eſculent plants, are raiſed, but they are, comparatively, taſteleſs. The ſtaple productions for exportation are, ſugar, tobacco, ſilk, cotton, indigo, and opium. The manufacture of indigo appears to have been known and practiſed in India from the earlieſt period. From this country, whence it derives its name, Europe was anciently ſupplied with it, until the produce of America engroſſed the market. The ſpirited and perſevering exertions of a few individuals have reſtored this commerce to Bengal, ſolely by the ſuperior quality of their manufactures; for in the culture no material change has been made.

Sunn. But in enumerating the growths of the Britiſh ſettlements in India, it is important to notice one which, in times of difficulty, may afford moſt eſſential relief and aid to this kingdom. A ſpecies of hemp, called *Sunn*, grows abundantly in many diſtricts of Bengal, and in the iſland of Salſette, near Bombay. In 1796, the Eaſt India Company began to import this hemp; and in order to bring it as ſoon as poſſible into general uſe, ſold it, without regard to immediate pecuniary advantage, at about two-thirds of the price of Ruſſian hemp; and even preſented bales of it gratis to ſeveral rope-makers, to allure them to give it a trial. They alſo got it made into cordage of a great variety of ſizes, from ratline ſtuff to twenty-one-inch cables, ſome in the ordinary manner, and ſome by an improved proceſs with the warm regiſter invented by Captain Huddart. They alſo made ſail-cloth, hammock-cloth, lines, and twines, and went to conſiderable expenſe in experiments to aſcertain the proportionate ſtrength of ropes made of ſunn, in compariſon with each other, and with Ruſſian hemp; and the following ſtatement may be taken as a ſpecimen of the reſult: —

Of three eight-inch cables.

	tons.	cwts.	lbs.
One made of ordinary Ruſſian hemp, bore -	12	4	0
One made of beſt Peterſburg clean hemp -	14	8	48
One made of ſunn hemp, warm regiſtered -	15	7	52

For ſmall cordage the ſunn is found to be inferior to Ruſſian hemp; and the cordage made of ſunn in the old manner, is inferior in ſtrength to the *beſt* Ruſſian; but it is a great advantage, that cables, and other large ropes, which conſume the greateſt quantity of the material, can be made of the ſunn

hemp more advantageouſly than the ſmaller cordage. A failure of the ſunn cordage in ſome trials made, without attending to its different qualities, together with the uſual prejudice againſt new articles, induced ſome rope-makers and ſeamen to exclaim againſt it as totally uſeleſs. The Company, nevertheleſs, perſevered, till they found that their expenditure exceeded the amount of the ſales by more than 45,000*l.* After making that ſacrifice, they deſiſted from further importation, until prejudice ſhould ſubſide, and the great national advantage of leſſening the dependence upon Ruſſia, and of diminiſhing the unfavourable balance of trade with that country, ſhould be more generally underſtood. When the differences between this country and Ruſſia took place in 1800, the miniſtry expreſſed a wiſh that the importation of ſunn ſhould be reſumed; and in February 1801, when the price of Ruſſian hemp was 61*l.* a ton, they requeſted that the Directors would encourage the cultivation and importation of ſunn. The Bengal government was, in conſequence, directed to ſpare neither trouble nor expenſe in obtaining ſunn of the beſt quality; and ſix hemp-dreſſers were ſent out to inſtruct the natives in preparing it for manufacture. Before the ſunn thus ordered could arrive, the obſtruction to the acquiſition of Ruſſian hemp, was removed; and the ſunn was ſold at the Company's ſale in the ordinary courſe of buſineſs. In September 1807, the Directors made an offer to the miniſtry to import ſunn hemp for the uſe of the navy, and to deliver it at His Majeſty's ſtorehouſes without any profit; but they prudently declined in engaging the Company to run any further riſk of loſs. The miniſtry accepted the propoſal, and put a ſum of money into the Company's hands for the purpoſe; and the ſunn has accordingly been imported, and delivered.

COMMERCE. The exportation of grain from corn diſtricts, and the returns of ſalt, conſtitute the principal object of internal trade. The importation of cotton from the weſtern provinces, and the exchange of tobacco for betel-nut, together with ſome ſugar, and a few articles of leſs note, complete the ſupply of internal conſumption. Piece goods, ſilk, ſaltpetre, opium, ſugar, and indigo, formerly paſſed almoſt wholly through the Company's hands; but now all ſorts of traffic are much more open, and practiſed generally by every deſcription of merchant. Grain, the internal commerce of which is entirely conducted by the natives themſelves, ſupplies the conſumption of the cities, and the export trade of Bengal. Except in cities, the bulk of the people is everywhere ſubſiſted from the produce of their immediate neighbourhood.

Plain muſlins, diſtinguiſhed by their various names, according to the fineneſs or cloſeneſs of the texture, as well as flowered,

flowered, ſtriped, or chequered muſlins, denominated from their patterns, are fabricated chiefly in the province of Dacca; other kinds, more cloſely wove, are manufactured on the weſtern ſide of the Delta of the Ganges; and a different ſort, diſtinguiſhed by a more rigid texture, does not ſeem to be limited to any particular diſtricts. Coarſe muſlins, in the ſhape of turbans, handkerchiefs, &c. are made almoſt in every province; and the northern parts of Benares afford both plain and flowered muſlins, which are not ill adapted for common uſes, though incapable of ſuſtaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca. Under the general name of calicoes, are included various ſorts of cloth, to which no Engliſh names have been yet affixed; and are, for the moſt part, known in Europe by the Indian denominations. Packthread is wove into ſackcloth in many places, and eſpecially on the northern frontier of Bengal Proper, where it is employed as clothing by the mountaineers. A ſort of canvaſs is made from cotton in the neighbourhood of Chittagong, Patna, and ſome other places; and blankets are made everywhere for common uſe. A coarſe cotton cloth, dyed red, with cheap materials, is very generally uſed, and is chiefly manufactured in the centre of the Doab. Other ſorts, dyed of various colours, but eſpecially blue, are prepared for inland commerce, and exportation by ſea. Both fine and coarſe calicoes receive a topical dying, with permanent and fugitive colours, for common uſe, as well as for exportation. The province of Benares, the city of Patna, and the neighbourhood of Calcutta, are the principal ſeats of this manufacture of chintz; which appears to be an original art in India, invented long ſince, and brought to a perfection not yet ſurpaſſed in Europe. Dimities, of various kinds, and damaſk linen, are now made at Dacca, Patna, Taunda, and other places.

The neighbourhood of Moorſhedabad, is the chief ſeat of the manufacture of wove ſilk, and tafeta, both plain and flowered. Tiſſues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are the manufacture of Benares. Plain gauzes, adapted to the uſes of the country, are wove in the weſtern and ſouthern corners of Bengal. The weaving of mixed goods, made with ſilk and cotton, flouriſhes chiefly at Maulda, at Boglipoor, and at ſome towns in the diſtrict of Burdwan. A conſiderable quantity of filature ſilk is exported to the weſtern parts of India, and much is ſold at Mirzapoor, and paſſes thence to the Mahratta dominions, and the central parts of Hindoſtan. The tiſſer, or wild ſilk, is procured in abundance from countries bordering upon Bengal, and from ſome diſtricts included within its limits. The wild

ſilk worms are there found in ſeveral ſorts of trees, which are common in the foreſts of Silhet, Aſſam, and the Deccan.

Hides are tanned in Bengal, and the natives have learnt to make ſhoes, boots, ſaddles, and other articles. Buffaloes' horns might alſo become an article of export, although ſo bulky, and difficult of ſtowage. An excellent ſpecies of canvas is manufactured in Calcutta, and ſold much cheaper than that imported from Europe. Did freight permit, rice and other grains might be exported to Europe; and rum, liquorice, and ginger, could be furniſhed to any extent.

It is extremely probable that annotto, madder, coffee, cocoa, cochineal, and even tea, would thrive in Britiſh India, which now comprehends every variety of tropical climate. The plant from the ſeeds of which annotto is prepared, by ſeparating the colouring matter which adheres to them, is already cultivated in Bengal; and coffee plants have thriven in botanical and private gardens. Madder is a native of the mountainous regions which border on Bengal; and this province poſſeſſes, beſides, many articles which might be brought into notice by a more extended commerce.

Various drugs, uſed in dying, are exported to England; ſuch as galls, turmeric, ſafflower, or carthamus; alſo myrobalans, which are here uſed in preference to galls. Roots of morinda, which dye a permanent colour on cotton, and bloſſoms of the nyctanches, which give a permanent colour to ſilk. Gum arabic, and many other ſorts of gums and reſins for manufactures, are the produce of trees that grow ſpontaneouſly, beſides a multitude of medicinal gums and drugs. Vegetable oils, particularly linſeed, might be ſupplied from theſe provinces, which are alſo adapted for the cultivation of flax. Tincal, brought from the high table land of Tibet, is among the imports to Bengal; and vegetable and mineral alkalies may hereafter become a conſiderable object of commerce. The foſſil alkali is found in abundance; and the woods of Bengal are capable of furniſhing potaſh in large quantities. The preparation of ſal ammoniac might be advantageouſly connected with the manufacture of ſaltpetre.

Beſide the articles already mentioned, which have a reference principally to Bengal, India furniſhes aloes, aſſafœtida, benzoin, camphor, cardamums, caſſia lignea, and caſſia buds, arrangoes, couries, China root, cinnabar, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, elephants' teeth, gums of various ſorts, mother-of-pearl, pepper, (quickſilver and rhubarb from China,) ſago, ſcammony, ſenna and ſaffron; and might ſupply aniſe, coriander, and cumin ſeeds, and many other objects, which would occupy two much room to enumerate.

Formerly

Formerly the exports to Europe, and to the United States of America, conſtituted the moſt conſiderable portion of Bengal commerce. From Europe are now imported metals of all ſorts, wrought and unwrought, woollen of various kinds, naval and military ſtores, gold and ſilver coin and bullion, and almoſt every article of Europe, for the European part of the inhabitants.

The returns to Bengal from Madras, and the coaſt of Coromandel, conſiſt of ſalt, red wood, ſome fine long cloth, izanees and chintzes. From the eaſtern iſlands, and the Malay coaſt, Bengal receives pepper, tin, wax, dammer, brimſtone, gold duſt, ſpecie, betel-nut, ſpices, and benzoin. From China, tutenague, ſugar-candy, tea, allum, dammer, porcelain, lacquered ware, and a variety of manufactured goods. From Manilla, indigo of a very fine quality, ſugar, ſapan wood, and ſpecie. From the Malabar coaſt, ſandal wood, coir rope, pepper, ſome cardamons, and occaſionally cargoes of cotton wool; the balance is generally ſunk in the annual ſupplies with which Bengal furniſhes Bombay. From Pegue are brought teak timber, elephants' teeth, lac, and ſome other commodities

Bahar. This province extends from the 22d to the 27th degree of north latitude. It is ſeparated from the Nepaul dominions by an extenſive range of hills, which riſe up on the northern frontier; on the ſouth, it has the ancient and barbarous Hindoo province of Gundwana; on the eaſt it is bounded by Bengal, and on the weſt by Allahabad, Oude, and Gundwana. The river Caramnaſſa was the old line of ſeparation between the Bahar and Benares territories.

This province is one of the moſt fertile, highly cultivated, and populous of Hindoſtan, in proportion to its extent of plain arable ground, which may be computed at 26,000 ſquare miles, divided naturally into two equal portions of territory, north and ſouth of the Ganges, which runs here an eaſterly courſe of two hundred miles. The province of Bahar poſſeſſes great natural advantages; a temperate climate, high and fertile ſoil, well watered, productive of the drier grains, and all the luxuries required by the more active inhabitants of the north. Its geographical ſituation is central, having eaſy communications internally, and ſerving as a thoroughfare for the commerce of Bengal, and of foreign maritime countries, with the provinces of Hindoſtan. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, have always greatly flouriſhed in this province. Opium may be conſidered as its peculiar produce and ſtaple commodity; ſaltpetre is principally manufactured in the diſtricts of Hajypoor and Sarun. Cotton cloths, for exportation, are made everywhere; in addition to which, are the ordinary pro-

ductions of grain, ſugar, indigo, oil, betel-leaf, &c. An intimate connexion has always ſubſiſted between this province and Bengal, on which account their hiſtories and political economy are unavoidably much blended, and the general information reſpecting the one applies to the other.

Benares. This is a large diſtrict, or zemindary, in the province of Allahabad, ſituated principally betwixt the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude. The atmoſphere, which in winter is ſo ſevere as to render fires neceſſary, becomes ſo heated for three months after March, by the ſetting in of the hot winds, as to deſtroy all verdure, and would probably prove deſtructive to European artificial graſſes, were the cultivation introduced. Turnips, radiſhes, and a variety of greens and garden ſtuffs, are raiſed by the natives, principally for the Europeans. There is little rice; the chief articles of produce being wheat, barley, and ſeveral ſpecies of the pea. A ſmall quantity of flax is raiſed in the ſkirts of almoſt every field, for the ſake of the oil; its uſe, as an article of clothing, is not underſtood. Every field of barley contains a mixture of grain or peaſe; and at the diſtance of ſix or ten feet, is planted a beautiful yellow flowering ſhrub uſed in dying. From Patna to Buxar, Gazypoor, Benares, and Mirzapoor, a rich and well cultivated country preſents itſelf; and the numerous clumps of mango trees give the diſtrict the appearance of a foreſt, and afford an agreeable retreat to the cattle. Plain and flowered muſlins, adapted to common uſes, are manufactured in the northern, baftas in the weſtern, and ſanaes in the eaſtern parts of the province. Tiſſues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are a general manufacture. Benares is ſupplied with ſalt of its own manufacture, joined with importations from Sambher, in Ajmeer, and other places. A great quantity of excellent indigo is annually raiſed and exported from this province, which alſo furniſhes a proportion of the Company's opium.

Orissa. Of this extenſive province, a part of the diſtrict of Midnapoor alone belongs to the Britiſh government, and therefore to that alone is the preſent deſcription confined. Oriſſa is in the Deccan. Midnapoor, which is part of one of its five diſtricts, contains about 7,000 ſquare miles, in which are 1,500,000 inhabitants; while the whole of the province has a population not exceeding four millions. The cultivation is in proportion to the increaſe of population; the manufactures are few, and in a declining ſtate. Some ſanaes are made in the diſtrict, and more are imported from the contiguous countries to the ſouth and eaſt; plain gauzes, adapted for the uſes of the country, are alſo wove. The European planters have introduced

troduced the cultivation of indigo, but the quantity exported has never been great.

CITIES. Within the limits of Bengal are three large cities; Calcutta, Moorſhedabad, and Dacca; beſide many very populous trading towns. In Bahar the chief town is Patna, but there are others of conſiderable ſize and note. In Benares, the principal town is that which bears the name of the province; and the town called Midnapoor is the only place at all worthy of that name in the Britiſh part of Oriſſa.

CALCUTTA. It will be recollected, that the ſelection of the ſpot on which this city, the Britiſh capital in India, is placed, was made rather through neceſſity than otherwiſe, and that obſervation will anſwer many objections againſt the poſition as unhealthy, by reaſon of the adjacent lakes and jungles. The city ſtands about 100 miles from the ſea, on the eaſt ſide of the weſtern branch of the Ganges, named by Europeans the Hooghly river. In approaching Calcutta from the ſea, a ſtranger is ſtruck with its magnificent appearance; the elegant villas on each ſide of the river, the Company's botanic gardens, the ſpires of the churches, temples, and minarets, and the ſtrong and regular citadel of Fort William. The town and ſuburbs extend along the eaſt ſide of the river above ſix miles, but the breadth varies at different places. The eſplanade, between the town and Fort William, leaves a grand opening, along the edge of which is placed the new government-houſe erected by Marquis Welleſley; and continued on in a line with this edifice, is a range of magnificent houſes, ornamented with ſpacious verandahs. Chowringhee, formerly a collection of native huts, is now an entire village of palaces, and extends for a conſiderable diſtance into the country. The architecture of the houſes is Grecian. The principal ſquare extends about five hundred yards each way, and contains in the centre an ample tank, ſurrounded by a handſome wall and railing, and having a gradation of ſteps to the bottom, which is ſixty feet from the top of its banks. A range of indifferent looking houſes, known by the name of the Writer's Buildings, occupies one ſide of the ſquare; and near to it, on the ſite of the old fort, taken by Seraja ul Dowlah, in 1757, is a cuſtom-houſe, with ſeveral other handſome buildings. The black-hole is now part of a warehouſe, and filled with merchandize. A monument is erected facing the gate, to commemorate the unfortunate perſons who there periſhed; but it has been ſtruck by lightning, and is itſelf faſt going to decay.

Beſide the government-houſe, which is remarkably ſplendid, the other public buildings are, a town-houſe, the court of juſtice,

juſtice, and two churches of the eſtabliſhed religion, one of which makes a very handſome appearance, but the other is a plain building. There are alſo churches for the Portugueſe Catholics, another for Chriſtians of the Greek perſuaſion, an Armenian church, and many ſmall Hindoo temples and Mahomedan moſques. The hoſpital and jail are to the ſouth of the town. The botanic garden is beautifully ſituated on the weſt bank of the Ganges; above it is an extenſive plantation of teak, which is not a native of this part of India, but which thrives well. There is a private dock-yard nearly oppoſite to Fort William, and another one mile below it, on the ſame ſide of the water.

The black town extends along the river to the north of Calcutta, and exhibits a remarkable contraſt to the part inhabited by the Europeans. It is extremely large, and ſwarming with population. The ſtreets are narrow, dirty, and unpaved; the houſes of two ſtories are of brick, with flat terraced roofs; but the great majority are mud cottages, covered with ſmall tiles, with ſide walls of mats, bamboos, and other combuſtible materials.

Fort William ſtands about a quarter of a mile below the town, and is ſuperior, in ſtrength and regularity, to any fortreſs in India. It is an octagon; five of the faces are regular, while the forms of the other three, next the river, are according to local circumſtances. This citadel was commenced by Lord Clive, ſoon after the battle of Plaſſey, and was intended by him to be complete in every reſpect; but it has ſince been diſcovered, that it is erected on too extenſive a ſcale, as the number of troops required to garriſon it properly, would be able to keep the field. It is capable of containing 15,000 men; the works are ſo extenſive that 10,000 would be required to defend them efficiently, and they have coſt the Eaſt India Company two millions ſterling. The barracks make a very handſome appearance, and afford excellent accommodation both to the privates and officers.

Calcutta poſſeſſes the advantage of an excellent inland navigation, foreign imports being tranſported with great facility on the Ganges and its ſubſidiary ſtreams, to the northern nations of Hindoſtan, while the valuable productions of the interior are received by the ſame channels. Cloths, amounting in value to a million ſterling, belonging to native merchants, are, on an average, depoſited in Calcutta for ſale, and every other ſpecies of merchandize in an equal proportion. In September 1808, the Calcutta government bank was eſtabliſhed, with a capital of fifty lacks of rupees, of which government have ten lacks, and individuals the remainder. The notes iſſued are for not leſs than ten rupees, or more than 10,000.

There have been various opinions as to the population of Calcutta, but it does not appear any correct cenſus has been taken. In 1802, the police magiſtrates eſtimated it at 600,000; probably half a million will approximate to the real number. The adjacent country is alſo ſo thickly inhabited, that, in 1802, the police magiſtrates calculated that Calcutta, with a circuit of twenty miles, comprehended 2,225,000 ſouls.

The maintenance and education of children belonging to Europeans in India, have, on account of their number, become objects of great importance. Two inſtitutions have been formed, one for officers' children, and the other for thoſe of private ſoldiers. To theſe charitable foundations may be added a free-ſchool, and native hoſpital.

MOORSHEDABAD. This town, which was formerly the capital of Bengal, extends eight miles along both ſides of the moſt ſacred branch of the Ganges, named the Bhagiratty, or Coſſimbazar river, about 120 miles above Calcutta. The buildings are in general bad, and the palace of the nabobs ſo inſignificant, as to be paſſed without obſervation. The ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and almoſt impaſſable for European wheeled carriages. The town is a place of great inland traffic, and the river is ſeen conſtantly covered with boats, which are examined at the cuſtom-houſe. The neighbourhood is the chief ſeat of the manufacture of wove ſilk, taffeta, both plain and flowered, and many other ſorts for inland commerce and exportation.

DACCA. Dacca, the capital of the eaſtern part of Bengal, is ſituated beyond the principal ſtream of the Ganges, but a very large branch of that river runs paſt it. Few ſituations are better calculated for inland commerce, as its river communicates with all the inland navigations by a direct courſe. It lies about one hundred miles above the mouth of the Ganges, and 180 by the road from Calcutta. The preſent town ſtands on a great ſpace, and, including the ſuburbs, extends ſix miles along the banks of the river; but its breadth is not in proportion. Like other native towns, it is a mixture of brick and thatch houſes, with very narrow and crooked ſtreets. The latter deſcription of houſes being of very combuſtible materials, are generally burnt once, and ſometimes twice, in a year, and their combuſtion is viewed, by their owners, with an apathy truly Aſiatic. Into large earthen pots, ſunk in the floor, they throw the few valuables they poſſeſs; and mats, thatch, and bamboos being plenty, the expenditure of a few rupees affords them a new dwelling. Theſe fires generally originate with the owners of the houſe-building materials; and when a fleet of boats, loaded with them, arrives, a conflagration may be expected

pected to enſure a ready ſale. The city ſtill continues very populous, although it ſuffered conſiderably, apparently remote as it is, by the French revolution, its beautiful fabrics having been in great requeſt at the old French court. The number of inhabitants may be eſtimated to exceed 150,000, of whom more than one-half are Mahomedans.

Patna. This city, the capital of Bahar, is of great antiquity, and ſuppoſed by ſome to be the ſite of the ancient Palibothra. By the modern Mahomedans it is named Azimabad, and by the Hindoos Sri Nagur. It is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the Ganges, which is here five miles wide during the rainy ſeaſon, and the eaſtern limits not diſcernible. The town of Patna is one continued ſtreet for many miles along the Ganges, the houſes of the natives being generally of mud; but thoſe of the Europeans, which extend from Bankipoor, are of brick, and make a very handſome appearance, which is not the caſe with the reſt of the city. This town is extremely proſperous and populous; the number of inhabitants has never been accurately aſcertained, but they cannot be eſtimated at leſs than 150,000; yet every article of food is remarkably cheap. A large quantity of ſaltpetre is annually diſpatched from hence to Calcutta, for internal conſumption and exportation. Chintzes and dimities of various kinds are manufactured, and alſo cloths reſembling diaper and damaſk linen. In the vicinity, flannels, well wove, but ill fulled, are made, and alſo a ſort of canvas from cotton. The Company, many years ago, erected a depot to contain rice. It is a building of ſtone, in the ſhape of a bee-hive, with two winding ſtaircaſes on the outſide, which have been aſcended on horſeback. By theſe ſtairs the grain is poured in at the top, there being a ſmall door at the bottom to take it out. The walls at the bottom, although twenty-one feet thick, have given way; a circumſtance of very little conſequence, as, were it filled, (which it never was) it would not contain one day's conſumption for the inhabitants of the province. It coſt 120,000 rupees. Here are alſo the remains of the Britiſh factory, where the maſſacre of two hundred priſoners was perpetrated in 1763, by the German adventurer Somro (Summers), then in the ſervice of Mir Coſſim, immediately after which the city was captured by the Britiſh troops under Major Adams, and has ever ſince remained in their poſſeſſion.

Benarbs. This is a celebrated city in the province of Allahabad, the capital of the Benares diſtricts. The Sanſcrit name is Varanſhi, from Vara and Naſhi, two rivers. The Ganges here forms a fine ſweep of about four miles in length; on the external ſide of the curve, which is the moſt elevated, is ſituated

ſituated the holy city of Benares. It is covered with buildings to the water's edge, and the oppoſite being level, the whole may be viewed at once. The ſtreets are ſo extremely narrow, that it is difficult to penetrate them, even on horſeback. The houſes are built of ſtone, ſome ſix ſtories high, cloſe to each other, with terraces on the ſummit, and extremely ſmall windows, to keep them cool and prevent inſpection. The number of ſtone and brick houſes, from one to ſix ſtories high, is upward of twelve thouſand. The mud houſes above 16,000; and, in 1803, the permanent inhabitants, by enumeration, exceeded 582,000. The houſes of the Engliſh at Secrolé are handſome, although they look naked for want of trees; but this is abſolutely neceſſary in India, on account of the harbour they afford to muſquetoes. There are but few Europeans; a judge, collector, and regiſter, with a few other civil ſervants, conſtitute the Company's eſtabliſhment; to which may be added a few private merchants and planters. Reading and writing are taught here at the ſame time. The boys are collected on a ſmooth flat of ſand; and, with the finger, or a ſmall reed, form the letters in the ſand, which they learn to pronounce at the ſame time. When the ſpace before each ſcholar is filled up with writing, it is effaced, and prepared for a new leſſon. It is hardly neceſſary to obſerve, that this is the ſyſtem which Dr. Bell has perfected and introduced into England, and which is known by his name.

Government.

Districts. For the purpoſes of government, Bengal has been, in modern times, divided into the following diſtricts; Backergunge, Birbhoom, Burdwan, Chittagong, Hooghly, Jeſſore, Mymunſingh, Moorſhedabad, Nuddea, Purneah, Raujeſhy, Rungpoor, Silhet, Tipperah, the 24 Pergunnahs, and to which, from its long connexion, muſt be added Midnapoor, although it properly belongs to Oriſſa.

The Supreme Council. The conſtitution of this body by the ſtatute 33 Geo. III. c. 52., with the authority of the governor and council, are already mentioned.

The Church. It was not until the year 1813, that the Britiſh government thought fit to make regular proviſion for a church eſtabliſhment in their Indian territories. In that year an act was paſſed, from which the following regulations are extracted. In caſe a biſhop and three archdeacons ſhall be eſtabliſhed in India by His Majeſty's letters patent, the Court of Directors ſhall cauſe to be paid to the biſhop 5,000*l.* a year, and

and to each of the archdeacons 2,000*l.*; to commence on their entering upon their offices, and to be in lieu of all fees, perquiſites, and emoluments whatſoever. The biſhop is not to uſe or exerciſe any juriſdiction or epiſcopal functions but thoſe limited by his patent; His Majeſty may, from time to time, grant ſuch eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, and the exerciſe of ſuch epiſcopal functions, in India, as he ſhall think neceſſary. The warrant for iſſuing any letters patent reſpecting any ſuch biſhoprick or archdeaconry, muſt be counterſigned by the preſident of the Board of Controul. The King may grant, when they ſhall have exerciſed their office in India fifteen years, to the biſhop, a ſum not exceeding 1,500*l.* per annum, and to each archdeacon a penſion not exceeding 800*l.* per annum.

In purſuance of this ſtatute, a biſhop was appointed in 1814, with the limited number of archdeacons. Of the ſucceſs of the meaſure in extending chriſtianity over thoſe wide-ſpread and populous regions, it would, as yet, be raſh to pronounce. The fervent wiſhes of every believer muſt be in favour of the meaſure, and rational hope may accompany thoſe wiſhes.

Law Courts. For the adminiſtration of juſtice throughout the provinces ſubject to the preſidency, there are proper tribunals in the civil and criminal departments.

The *Supreme Court* is ſtationed at Calcutta. It conſiſts of a chief juſtice, and two puiſne judges, nominated by the Crown. Its juriſdiction extends to all Britiſh ſubjects, that is, natives, or the deſcendants of natives of Great Britain in India, and to all the inhabitants of Calcutta; but it has no cognizance of the land revenue. In ſuits, to which the natives are parties, the judges are enjoined by act of parliament to reſpect the uſages of the country. In matters of inheritance, or contract, the rule of deciſion is to be the law acknowledged by the litigant parties. Should only one of the parties be a Mahomedan, or Hindoo, it is to be the law acknowledged by the defendant. Criminal offences are tried by a jury, conſiſting excluſively of Britiſh ſubjects; in trials of a civil nature the judges decide both on the law and the fact. The ſupreme court alſo tries criminal charges againſt the Company's ſervants, and civil ſuits in which the Company or the Company's ſervants are concerned. The law practitioners, attached to the Supreme Court, are fourteen attornies and ſix barriſters.

There are ſix *Courts of Appeal* and *Circuit* attached to ſix different diviſions, and forty inferior courts, or rather magiſtrates, ſtationed in ſo many different diſtricts and cities.

The *Courts of Circuit* conſiſt of three judges, with an aſſiſtant, together with native officers, both Mahomedan and Hindoo. The judges make their circuit at ſtated periods of the year,

year, and hold alſo regular and frequent gaol deliveries. They try criminal offences according to the Mahomedan law; but when the ſentence is capital, or impriſonment is awarded beyond a defined period, it does not take effect until it receives confirmation from the ſuperior criminal court in Calcutta, named the *Nizamut Adawlet*. The principal buſineſs of this court is to reviſe trials; but it is, in no caſe, permitted to aggravate the ſeverity of the ſentence.

In the country diſtricts, the officer who, in his criminal capacity, has the appellation of magiſtrate, is alſo the civil judge of the city or diſtrict in which he reſides. He tries all ſuits of a civil nature, provided the cauſe of action have originated, the property concerned be ſituated, or the defendant be reſident, within his juriſdiction. To try ſuits of a ſmall limited amount, the judge may appoint native commiſſioners, from whoſe deciſions an appeal lies to the judge. With a few exceptions, the deciſions of the judge are appealable to the provincial courts of appeal, within the juriſdiction of which he reſides. The ultimate court of appeal, in civil matters, ſits in the city of Calcutta, and is ſtyled the Sudder Dewanny Adawlet. To this court all cauſes reſpecting perſonal property, beyond 5,000 rupees value, are appealable; with regard to real property, it is aſcertained by certain rules, differing according to its nature and tenure. From this court an appeal lies to the King in council, if the value amounts to 5,000*l.* ſterling.

Under the Mahomedan governments, ſuitors pleaded their own cauſes, and the practice continued till 1793, when regular native advocates were appointed. Theſe advocates are choſen out of the Mahomedan college at Calcutta, and Hindoo college at Benares, and the rate of fees is fixed by public regulation. This inſtitution enſures ſuitors againſt negligence or miſconduct on the part either of the judge or of his native aſſiſtant; the advocates being often as converſant in the buſineſs of the court as either of thoſe officers. Written pleadings have been introduced in the native languages, for the purpoſe of bringing litigation to a point, and enforcing as much preciſion as the habits of the people will admit. Before this, the charge and defence conſiſted of confuſed oral complaints, loudly urged on one ſide, and as loudly retorted on the other. In receiving evidence, great indulgence is granted to the ſcruples of caſte, and the prejudices againſt the public appearance of females, ſo prevalent in eaſtern countries.

College. The prodigious extent and population of the Britiſh poſſeſſions having produced the neceſſity of governing and adminiſtering juſtice to many millions of men, the embarraſſments which reſulted from the want of a competent number of

of Britiſh ſubjects verſed in the languages, and other learning neceſſary for the ſeveral purpoſes connected with government, juriſprudence, and commerce, were ſtrongly felt both at home and in India. On the 18th of Auguſt 1800, the Marquis of Welleſley, then Governor-general, matured the plan for eſtabliſhing a college at Calcutta, which he detailed in a very able ſtate paper, which was adopted as a minute of council, and carried into complete effect. A body of ſtatutes has been framed. The Governor-general is patron and viſitor; the members of the ſupreme council, and the judges of the ſuperior courts are governors; there are profeſſors in the law of Britiſh India, in the Arabic, Perſian, Hindoo, Sanſcrit, Mahratta, and Bengalee languages, and proper officers. By act of parliament, the Board of Controul may ſend out to the ſeveral governments of the Company, through the medium of the Court of Directors, ſuch orders and inſtructions as they ſhall think fit, reſpecting the college and all ſeminaries which may be eſtabliſhed under the authority of the Company.

MADRAS.

The territories ſubject to the preſidency of Fort St. George, or Madras, comprehend nearly the whole of India ſouth of the Kriſhna river (improperly named the Peninſula), and alſo a large province in the Deccan, named the Northern Circars. Within theſe boundaries are three princes, who collect the revenues, and exerciſe a certain degree of power in the internal management of their reſpective ſtates; but, with reference to external politics, are wholly ſubordinate to the Britiſh government. They are protected by a ſubſidiary force, and furniſh large annual contributions. Theſe princes are the Rajahs of Myſore, Travancor, and Cochin; the reſt of the country is under the immediate juriſdiction of the governor and council at Madras; and, for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and collection of the revenue, has been ſubdivided into the diſtricts of the Northern Circars, the Carnatic, Myſore and Carnatic.

THE NORTHERN CIRCARS. That portion of the Britiſh dominion on the Coromandel coaſt, commonly called the Northern Circars, from its relative ſituation to Fort St. George, is a narrow ſlip of maritime country, extending from 51°½ to the 20th degree of north latitude; and from 79°½ to 85°½ eaſt longitude from Greenwich. The ſea bounds it to the eaſt in a direct courſe N. E. ¹ E. along a coaſt 470 meaſured miles in length, from Mootapillee, dependent on Guntour, near its ſouthern extremity, to the town of Malond in Oriſſa, on the borders

borders of the Chilka lake. In almoſt a parallel direction on the weſt, from fifty to ſeventy miles inland, it is divided from the interior provinces of the Soubah of Hydrabad by a range of ſmall detached hills, extending to the banks of the Goadeveri; and in like manner ſeparated from Berar, to the north of that river, by a great continued ridge of mountains; from Goomſur the ſame unbroken chain curves to the eaſtward, and together with the Chilka lake, forms an almoſt impenetrable barrier of fifty miles to the north, on the ſide of the Mahrattas of Cuttack, excepting a tongue of land, between that lake and the ſea, a mile in breadth at Maloud, and interſected by the deep water communication of Manicpatam, at all times unfordable. Toward the ſouth, the ſmall river Gondegama, which empties itſelf at Mootapillee, ſeparates this territory from the diſtricts of Ongole, and thus forms, on that ſide, the moſt diſtinguiſhable modern frontier to the Carnatic Payengaut. The area, or ſuperficial contents of the circars, taken in their greateſt extent of acceſſible productive land, may be computed at 17,000 ſquare geographic miles; of which, perhaps, only one-fifth is in cultivation or fallow, twice that proportion in paſture, and the remainder woods, water, towns, barren hills, or that ſandy waſte, three miles in breadth, which borders the whole extent of the coaſt. The grand diviſions of this whole territory are naturally and properly five; being ſo many portions of its length, principally marked by rivers, running acroſs from the hills on the weſt to the ſea; but beſide theſe, a ſixth diſtrict has been formed from the maritime border of the four ſoutherly circars or provinces, to ſerve as an appendage to, and ſecure the ſalt made, or cuſtoms collected at, the ports of Nizampatam, on a ſouthern outlet of the Kiſtna, and of Maſſulipatam on one of its northern branches, as well as at their reſpective dependencies along the coaſt. The diviſions are:

1. *Guntour*, or *Moorteza-nagur*, the moſt ſoutherly province, which is of a circular form, comprehending an area of 2,500 ſquare miles. 2. *Condapillee*, or *Muſtafa-nagur*; and, 3. *Ellore*, adjacent to each other, as well as to the circar juſt deſcribed. 4. *Rajemundry*. 5. The diſtricts of *Maſſulipatam*, which form the leaſt of the grand diviſions of the circars, and are only portions of the maritime border, diſmembered, for certain uſes, from the four provinces already deſcribed. 6. *Cicacole*, anciently *Kulling*, the moſt northerly and laſt in order of the grand diviſions.

THE CARNATIC. This diſtrict compriſes, 1. *Nellore* and Ongole, including part of the weſtern Pollams or Zemindaries. 2. Northern diviſion of Arcot, including Sativaid, Pulicat,

Coongoody in the Barramahal, part of Ballaghaut, and of the weſtern Pollams or Zemindaries. 3. *Chingleput*, or the *Jaghire*. 4. Southern diviſion of Arcot, including Cuddalore and Pondicherry. 5. *Trichinopoly*. 6. *Tanjore*.

MYSORE and CARNATIC. The diſtrict thus deſcribed conſiſts of *Dindigul*, including Madura, Manapara, Pollams, Ramnad, and Shevagunga, forming part of the ſouthern Carnatic.

THE SOUTHERN CARNATIC. This diſtrict is confined to Tinnevelley, which occupies the ſouth-eaſtern extremity of what is called the peninſula.

MYSORE. The diſtrict thus named includes Bellary Gudapah, being the Balaghaut ceded diſtricts; alſo Seringapatam, Salem and Kiſtnagherry, Coimbetoor, Canara, Malabar, and Madras.

The provinces ſubject to the government of Fort George, with the exception of Canara, Malabar, and other diſtricts, in which traces of private property ſtill exiſted when they came under the Britiſh government, exhibited nearly the ſame ſyſtem of territorial and revenue policy. The land belonged to government, and to the ryots or cultivators; but where the ſhare of government abſorbed nearly the whole of the landlord's rent, the ryots poſſeſſed little more intereſt in the ſoil than that of hereditary tenancy. The country was divided into villages. A village (in this part of India,) geographically, is a tract of country, compriſing ſome hundreds or thouſands of acres of arable and waſte land; politically, a village is a little republic or corporation, having within itſelf its municipal officers and corporate artificers. Its boundaries are ſeldom altered, and, though ſometimes injured, and even deſolated by war, famine, and epidemical diſtempers, the ſame name, boundaries, intereſts, and even families, continue for ages. The government ſhare was generally received from rice lands in kind, at rates varying from forty to ſixty per cent. of the groſs produce, after deducting certain portions diſtributed before the threſhing commences. The ſhare of government from dry grain land was generally received in caſh, varying with the produce. The total population of theſe provinces has been eſtimated at twelve millions; and, from the long tranquillity and comparative plenty they enjoy, it is certainly increaſing annually. In this eſtimate the inhabitants of the territories ſubject to the rajahs of Myſore, Travancor, and Cochin, are not included.

MADRAS. The city of Madras, the capital of the Britiſh poſſeſſions in the Deccan and ſouth of India, is ſituated in lat. 13° 5′ N. long. 80° 25′ E. The approach from the ſea is very ſtriking. The low flat ſandy ſhores extending to the north and ſouth, and the ſmall hills that are ſeen inland,

exhibiting an appearance of barrenneſs, which improves on cloſer inſpection. The beach ſeems alive with the crowds that cover it; the public offices and ſtorehouſes near the ſhore are fine buildings, with colonnades to the upper ſtories, ſupported on arched baſes, covered with the beautiful ſhell mortar of Madras, hard, ſmooth and poliſhed. Within a few yards of the ſea the fortifications of Fort George preſent an intereſting appearance; and at a diſtance, minarets and pagodas are ſeen mixed with trees and gardens. With all theſe external advantages, it would be difficult to find a worſe place for a capital than Madras, ſituated as it is on the margin of a coaſt where runs a rapid current, and againſt which a tremendous ſurf breaks even in the mildeſt weather. The boats uſed for croſſing the ſurf are large and light, and made of very thin planks, ſewed together, with ſtraw in the ſeams inſtead of caulking, which it is ſuppoſed would render them too ſtiff, the great object being, to have them as flexible as poſſible, to yield to the waves like leather. When within the influence of the ſurf, the coxſwain ſtands up, and beats time with great agitation with his voice and foot, while the rowers work their oars backwards, until overtaken by a ſtrong ſurf curling up, which ſweeps the boat along with a frightful violence. Every oar is then plied forwards with the utmoſt vigour, to prevent the wave from taking the boat back as it recedes; until at length, by a few ſucceſſive ſurfs, the boat is daſhed high and dry on the beach.

The boats belonging to ſhips in the roads ſometimes proceed to the back of the ſurf, where they anchor on the outſide of it, and wait for the country boats from the beach to convey their paſſengers on ſhore. When the weather is ſo unſettled as to make it dangerous even for the country boats to paſs and repaſs, a flag is diſplayed at the beach-houſe, to caution all perſons on board ſhip againſt landing. Large ſhips generally moor in nine fathoms with the flag-ſtaff W. N. W., about two miles from the ſhore. From the beginning of October until the end of December is conſidered the moſt dangerous ſeaſon to remain in the Madras roads.

The fiſhermen and lower claſſes of natives employed on the water, uſe a ſpecies of floating machine, of a very ſimple conſtruction, named a catamaran. It is formed of two or three light logs of wood, eight or ten feet in length, laſhed together, with a ſmall piece of wood inſerted between them to ſerve as a ſtern piece. When ready for the water, the catamaran holds two men, who with their paddles launch themſelves through the ſurf to fiſh, or to carry letters or ſmall quantities of refreſhments to ſhips, when no boats can venture out. Theſe men

wear a pointed cap made of matting, where they ſecure the letters, which take no damage, however often the men are waſhed off the catamaran, which they regain by ſwimming. Medals are given to thoſe who diſtinguiſh themſelves by ſaving perſons in danger, or by their care in conveying papers through the ſurf in dangerous weather.

Madras differs in appearance conſiderably from Calcutta, having no European town, except a few houſes in the fort, the ſettlers reſiding entirely in their garden-houſes; repairing to the fort in the morning for the tranſaction of their buſineſs, and returning in the afternoon. Fort George, as it now ſtands, is a ſtrong handſome fortreſs, not too large, ſituated within a few yards of the ſea; in the middle ſtands the original fortreſs, now moſtly converted into government offices and the town reſidences of ſome of the civil ſervants. To the ſouthward is the church, at the back of which is the abode of the governor. To the northward of the old fort ſtands the exchange, on which, in 1796, a light-houſe was erected; the light of which is 90 feet above the level of the ſea, and may be ſeen from ſhips' decks ſeventeen miles off.

The Government-houſe, which is large and handſome, is in the Choultry-plain, being ſituated on the edge of the eſplanade; and near to it are Chepauk gardens, the reſidence of the nabob of the Carnatic, which intercept the breeze from the ſea, and confine the view. The garden-houſes about Madras are generally only of one ſtory, but of a pleaſing ſtile of architecture, having their porticos and verandahs ſupported by chunamed pillars. The walls are of the ſame materials, either white or coloured; and the floors are covered with rattan mats. They are ſurrounded by fields planted with trees and ſhrubs, which have changed the barren ſand of the plain into a rich ſcene of vegetation; but flowers and fruits are ſtill raiſed with difficulty. During the hot winds, mats made of the roots of the cuſa graſs, which has a pleaſant ſmell, are placed againſt the doors and windows, and are conſtantly watered; ſo that the air which blows through them ſpreads an agreeable freſhneſs and fragrance throughout the room. The moment, however, the cooling influence of theſe mats is quitted, the ſenſation is like entering a furnace, although taking the average of the whole year, Madras experiences leſs extreme heat than Calcutta. In January the loweſt is about 70°, and in July the higheſt 91°.

The botanical garden, reared at a vaſt expence by the late Dr. James Anderſon, was ruined by a hurricane in 1807.

In the neighbourhood of Madras the ſoil, when well cultivated, produces a good crop of rice, provided, in the wet ſeaſon, the uſual quantity of rain falls. In ſome places the induſtry of

of the natives creates by irrigation a refreſhing verdure. Numerous ſmall canals from the Saymbrumbacum tank convey a conſtant ſupply of water to moſt of the neighbouring fields, and fertilize them without the trouble of machinery. The fields yield two crops in the year. In November, 1803, a navigable canal was opened from the Black Town to Ennore river, 10,560 yards in length; the greateſt breadth at the top forty feet, and its greateſt depth twelve feet. By this channel boats go to Pulicat, from whence Madras is ſupplied with charcoal.

The Black Town ſtands northward of the fort, from which it is ſeparated by a ſpacious eſplanade. It was formerly ſurrounded by fortifications ſufficient to reſiſt the incurſions of cavalry; but having long become unneceſſary, they are now much neglected. In this town reſide the native Armenian and Portugueſe merchants, and many Europeans unconnected with government. Like other native towns, it is irregular and confuſed, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houſes, and makes a better appearance at a diſtance than when cloſely inſpected.

A ſupreme court of juſtice is eſtabliſhed at Madras, on the model of that in Bengal. It conſiſts of a chief juſtice, and three other judges, who are barriſters of not leſs than five years' ſtanding, appointed by the king. The ſalary of the chief juſtice is ſix thouſand pounds per annum, and of the puiſne judges five thouſand pounds each, to be paid at the exchange of eight ſhillings per pagoda. After ſeven years' ſervice in India, if the judges of the ſupreme court return to Europe, the king is authoriſed to allow the chief judges not more than 1,600*l.*, and to the junior judges not more than 1,200*l.* per annum. The law practitioners attached to the court are ſeven attornies and four barriſters.

Among the charitable inſtitutions at Madras are a male and female orphan aſylum, both admirably conducted.

BOMBAY.

Bombay. The city and iſland thus denominated anciently formed a part of the province of Aurungabad, but now conſtitute the principal Britiſh ſettlement on the weſt coaſt of India. Bombay is about ten miles in length, by three in average breadth. It has now loſt all pretenſions to its inſular name; as, in 1805, Mr. Duncan completed a cauſeway, or vellard, at Sion, acroſs the narrow arm of the ſea which ſeparated it from the contiguous iſland of Salſette; an operation of infinite ſervice to the farmers and gardeners who ſupply the

Bombay market, but which is ſaid to have had a prejudicial effect on the harbour.

The fortifications of Bombay have been improved, but are deemed too extenſive, and would require a numerous garriſon. Toward the ſea they are extremely ſtrong, but to the land ſide do not offer the ſame reſiſtance; and to an enemy landed, and capable of making regular approaches, the fort muſt ſurrender. The town, within the walls, was begun by the Portugueſe, and thoſe houſes that have ſince been built are on the old conſtruction, with wooden pillars ſupporting wooden verandahs; the conſequence of which is, that Bombay bears no external reſemblance to the other two preſidencies. The Government-houſe is a handſome building, with ſeveral good apartments; but the largeſt on each floor is a paſſage-room to the others.

The northern part of the fort is inhabited by Parſee families, who are not remarkably cleanly in their domeſtic concerns, nor in the ſtreets where they live. The view from the fort is extremely beautiful toward the bay, which is here and there broken by iſlands, many of which are covered with trees, while the lofty and curiouſly-ſhaped hills of the table-land form a ſtriking back-ground. The ſea is on three ſides of the fort, and on the fourth the eſplanade; at the extremity of which is the Black Town, amidſt cocoa-nut trees.

Bombay is the only principal ſettlement in India where the riſe of the tides is ſufficient to permit the conſtruction of docks on a large ſcale; the higheſt ſpring-tides reach to ſeventeen feet, but the uſual height is fourteen feet. The docks are the Company's property, and the king's ſhips pay a high monthly rent for repairs. They are entirely occupied by Parſees, who poſſeſs an abſolute monopoly in all the departments, the perſon who contracts for the timber being a Parſee, and the inſpector of it, on delivery, of the ſame caſt. On the 23d of June, 1810, the Minden, of ſeventy-four guns, built entirely by Parſees, without the leaſt European aſſiſtance, was launched from theſe dock-yards. The teak foreſts, from whence theſe yards are ſupplied, lie along the weſtern ſide of the Ghauts, and other contiguous ridges of hills on the north and eaſt of Baſſein; the numerous rivers that deſcend from them affording water-carriage for the timber. This little iſland commands the entire trade of the north-weſt coaſt of India, together with that of the Perſian gulph. The principal cargo of a ſhip, bound from Bombay or Surat to China, is cotton. The other part conſiſts of ſandal-wood and pepper, from the Malabar coaſt; gums, drugs, and pearls, from Arabia, Abyſſinia, and Perſia; elephants' teeth, cornelians, and other produce of Cambay; ſharks' fins, birds' neſts, &c. from the Maldive and Lackadive iſlands. For

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the European market, Bombay is an excellent place to procure gums and drugs of all ſorts, Mocha coffee, barilla, cornelians, agates, and alſo blue and other Surat goods.

A court of judicature is held at Bombay, by a ſingle judge with the title of Recorder; the authority and practice of this tribunal being altogether conformable to thoſe of the ſupreme court at Calcutta. The law practitioners of the court are three barriſters and eight attornies.

At preſent, Bombay may be ſaid to rule the whole weſtern coaſt of India, and its influence is felt along the coaſts of Perſia and Arabia; but the territorial poſſeſſions under its immediate juriſdiction are ſmall, compared with thoſe of Bengal and Madras. They conſiſt principally of the diſtricts of Surat, Broach, Cambay, Goelwarah, and other countries extending along both ſides of the gulf of Cambay, a conſiderable proportion of which were obtained ſince 1802, from Arcund Row Guicowar, a Mahratta prince, and the whole are contained within the province of Gujrat, of which they compoſe by far the moſt fertile, cultivated, and populous portion. The inhabitants of this region are among the moſt intelligent and induſtrious of Hindoſtan, and from hence large quantities of cotton manufactures are exported to all parts of the world. From theſe diſtricts alſo a great export of the raw material takes place, partly the produce of the lands within the Company's influence, and partly brought from the interior, on the large navigable rivers, ſuch as the Nerbuddah, Tuptee, Mahy, and Mehindry, which, with many others of ſmaller note, empty their ſtreams into the gulf of Cambay.

The principal ſea-port towns, beſides Bombay, are Surat, Broach, Cambay, and Gogso, from which are procured the beſt native ſeamen in India; the natives along the gulf, particularly on the weſt ſide, being much addicted to navigation. The contiguous iſland of Salſette is alſo ſubordinate to this government, but, moſt unaccountably, continues to exhibit the ſame ſtate of deſolation in which it was originally received.

It is difficult, with any preciſion, to define the extent of the Bombay territorial poſſeſſions, as ſome of the Peiſhwa's diſtricts are intermingled with them, and approach within a few miles of the city of Surat. On a rough eſtimate, however, they may be calculated to comprehend ten thouſand ſquare miles, containing a population exceeding altogether two millions and a half, in the probable proportion of one Mahommedan to fifteen Hindoos. Nearly nine-tenths of all the exiſting Parſees are reſident within the Bombay limits; but no eſtimate of their numbers, approaching to exactneſs, has ever been made.

Surat. Surat is one of the moſt ancient cities in India, being mentioned in the Raurayuna, a Hindoo poem of great antiquity. After the diſcovery of the paſſage to the eaſt by the Cape of Good Hope, it was much frequented by veſſels belonging to all European nations, who exported from it pearls, diamonds, ambergriſe, civet, muſk, gold, ſilks and cottons of every deſcription, ſpices, fragrant woods, indigo, ſaltpetre, and all other objects of Indian traffic. From hence, alſo, great multitudes of pilgrims embarked for Arabia; on which account Surat was always conſidered by the Mahommedans of Hindoſtan as one of the gates of Mecca. It is now one of the largeſt, if not the very largeſt, city of Hindoſtan, although its trade has unavoidably ſuffered by the proximity of Bombay, to which place a conſiderable portion has been transferred. In 1796 one eſtimate raiſed the population of Surat ſo high as 800,000 ſouls; but another reduced it to 600,000, which probably exceeds the actual number. Large ſhips cannot aſcend the river, but caſt anchor about twenty miles below the town. The harbour, on the whole, is not commodious; it is, however, one of the beſt on this coaſt during the prevalence of the N. E. and N. W. winds. The anchorage is dangerous with winds from the ſouth and weſt.

CEDED DISTRICTS.

The Balaghaut ceded Districts. In the ſouth of India a ſtupendous wall of mountains, named the Ghauts, riſes abruptly from the low country, ſupporting, in the nature of a terrace, a vaſt extent of level plains, which are ſo elevated as to affect the temperature, and render the climate cooler. This table-land extends from the Kriſhna to the ſouthern extremity of the Myſore, and is named Balaghaut, or above the Ghauts, in contradiſtinction to Payenghaut, or below the Ghauts. This extenſive and fruitful region formed the ancient Hindoo empire of Karnata, no part of which was below the mountains, although in modern times the term has been ſo miſapplied by the Mahommedans and Europeans, as to ſignify excluſively the country below the Ghauts.

In the preſent article the name Balaghaut is reſtricted to the territory poſſeſſed by the Britiſh government, and ſubdivided into the two collectorſhips of Bellary and Cudapah. This tract was acquired by treaty with the Nizam, dated the 12th of October, 1800, and comprehends all the territory ſituated ſouth of the Toombuddra and Kriſhna rivers, which fell to the Nizam's ſhare by the treaties of Seringapatam

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in 1792, and Myſore in 1799, together with the Talook of Adoui, and all his highneſs's other diſtricts ſouth of theſe rivers. To this large portion of country two-thirds of Punganoor were added, and part of Goodiput; having been exchanged for certain diſtricts, which had been reſerved by the treaty of Myſore, as the eventual portion of the Peſhwah of the Mahrattas, but which, by a ſupplementary treaty in December 1803, fell into the poſſeſſion of the Company.

Under the ancient native governments, this quarter of the Balaghaut was ſubdivided into many diſtricts, the chief of which were Carnoul, Adoui, Commin, Harponully, Rydroog, Balhary, Gooty, Wandicotta, or Gundicotta, Cudapah, Gurrumcondah, Punganoor, and Sidhout.

The principal towns are Biſanagur, Balhary, Adoui, Gooty, Cudapah, Harponully, and Gurrumcondah.

From the elevated ſurface of this region it has no large rivers, except the *Khriſna* and *Toombuddra*, which are its proper boundaries, but it poſſeſſes many ſmaller ſtreams. Nearly all the lands are under the dry cultivation. Vaſt tracks remain unoccupied, which may be ploughed at once, without the labour and expence of clearing, as more than three millions of acres were formerly cultivated, and might be retrieved and occupied. Indigo is raiſed and exported in conſiderable quantities; the coarſe ſugar manufactory is on the increaſe; cotton is one of the chief productions; the peaſantry are a very induſtrious race, and moſt of them huſbandmen by caſt. In a political and military point of view, theſe diſtricts are of great value; for they are now what the Carnatic formerly was, the countries from which our armies in the Deccan muſt draw all their ſupplies of cattle and proviſions. When under the Nizam, the revenue of the ceded diſtricts was rapidly declining. An army was conſtantly in the field, the expence of which conſumed the collections; and the country was altogether in ſuch a diſtracted ſtate, that the Nizam ſeemed to have given it up to the Company, becauſe he could not retain it in ſubjection.

INSULAR POSSESSIONS.

Bencoolen. This eſtabliſhment is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of Sumatra. It came into the poſſeſſion of the Eaſt India Company in 1685, and large ſums were expended in fortifying and maintaining it; but in proceſs of time, the expences of government exceeding the revenue 90,000*l.* per annum, and the ſettlement having become of little importance as a commercial eſtabliſhment, ſince pepper, the only produce of the adjacent

adjacent country, could be more advantageouſly ſupplied from Prince of Wales' Iſland and Malabar, it was not judged expedient to keep up the eſtabliſhment as a principal government. Accordingly, in Auguſt 1801, the directors ordered it to be placed under the management of a reſident and four aſſiſtants, ſubject to the immediate direction of the government of Bengal. The civil ſervants, rendered ſupernumeraries by this arrangement, were transferred to Madras. Nothing is now ſent from Bencoolen but one ſolitary annual cargo of pepper, worth 15,000*l.*

PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND. This ſettlement, called by the natives Pulo Penang, or Betel Nut Iſland, is ſituated in the ſtraits of Malacca, off the weſt coaſt of the Malay peninſula, the N. E. point of which is in latitude 5° 25′ N. long. 100° 19′ E. It is of an irregular four-ſided figure, and computed to contain nearly 160 ſquare miles. Throughout the centre is a range of lofty hills, decreaſing in magnitude as they approach the ſouth, and from theſe flow numerous fine ſtreams, which ſupply the iſland abundantly with water. The ſoil is various; generally a light black mould mixed with gravel or clay, and in many parts ſandy. The whole iſland had been for ages covered with foreſts, from which originated a fine vegetable mould formed by the decayed leaves, which, as the woods were cleared, and the ſurface expoſed to the weather, in a conſiderable degree diſappeared; but the ſoil in the interior is ſtill equal to any ſort of cultivation. Theſe foreſts produce excellent timber for ſhip-building, and ſupply maſts of any dimenſions, lower maſts of one piece having been procured here for a 74-gun ſhip. Much of the north, and nearly all the ſouth and eaſt ſides of the iſland, are in a ſtate of cultivation. The principal productions are pepper, betel nut, betel leaf, cocoa nuts, coffee, ſugar, paddy, ginger, yams, ſweet potatoes, and a great variety of vegetables. The fruits are the mangoſteen, ramboſteen, pine apples, guavas, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, &c. The exotics raiſed here are cloves, nutmegs, cinnamon, pimento, kyapootee, colalava, and a number of other plants from the Moluccas, and eaſtern iſles. Pepper is the chief article of cultivation; the quantity raiſed in 1804 was calculated at two millions of pounds.

This iſland came into our poſſeſſion by purchaſe from the King of Queddah, and being taken poſſeſſion of on the 12th of Auguſt, 1786, received its preſent name in compliment to the illuſtrious perſonage on whoſe birth-day this acceſſion to the Britiſh dominions was made.

The principal eſtabliſhment is *George Town*, bounded on the north and eaſt by the ſea; on the ſouth by an inlet of the ſea, im-

improperly called the Prangin river; and on the weſt by the high road. The ſtreets, which croſs each other at right angles, are ſpacious and airy, and are now properly raiſed and drained. The markets are well ſupplied with excellent fiſh, poultry of all kinds, pork, grain of every deſcription, and a great variety of fine vegetables and fruits. Beef and veal are not of a good quality; ſheep are imported from Bengal and the coaſt; goat mutton can be procured from the Malay peninſula and Sumatra; when of a proper age the meat is very good. On the north-eaſt angle of the Point ſtands the fort, which having been originally extremely ill built, is now falling to pieces. Large ſums of money have been thrown away upon it, without its ever being finiſhed. It is not only incapable of defence from its ſize and conſtruction, but from its ſituation: two or three ſeventy-four-gun ſhips could anchor within piſtol-ſhot, and from their tops drive away the men from their guns. The harbour is formed by the narrow ſtrait which divides the north ſide of the iſland from the Queddah ſhore. It is very capacious, and everywhere affords good anchorage for the largeſt ſhips. There is alſo an excellent inner harbour, formed by the eaſtern end of this iſland, and the iſland Jerajah, where ſhips may receive every kind of repair that can be performed without going into dock. It is even thought that docks could be conſtructed here, capable of receiving any frigate, if not large enough for line-of-battle ſhips.

The appearance of many places in the interior of the iſland, and the number of tombs which have been diſcovered, give countenance to the tradition that it was once inhabited by nearly three thouſand people, who chiefly ſubſiſted by piracy, and were expelled by a king of Queddah. When it was taken poſſeſſion of by the Bengal government, it was only a ſhelter for a few miſerable fiſhermen. Its preſent inhabitants are compoſed of Britiſh, Dutch, Portugueſe, Armenians, Arabs, Parſees, Chineſe, Chooliahs, Malays, Buggeſſes, Burmahs, Siamiſe, Javaneſe, and other nations. There is not, probably, any part of the world, where, in ſo ſmall a ſpace, ſo many different people are aſſembled, or ſo great a variety of languages ſpoken.

Ceded District. To the beneficial poſſeſſion of this iſland, the acquiſition of the land on the north ſide of the ſtrait, on the continent, ſeemed not merely deſirable, but in ſome reſpects indiſpenſably requiſite; and in June 1800, after much negotiation, a diſtrict, eighteen miles in length, and three in breadth, was ceded by the King of Queddah, to the Company in perpetuity, for which, and the ſovereignty of the iſland, an annual ſum of 10,000 dollars was to be paid.

CEYLON. This valuable iſland, ſo long the property of the Dutch, fell into the power of Great Britain during the wars of the French Revolution, and was confirmed to this country by the treaty of Amiens in 1802.

It is ſituated at the weſtern entrance of the Bay of Bengal, between 5° 40′ and 10° 30′ N., and 79° and 82° E. On the north-weſt it is ſeparated from the Coromandel coaſt by the Gulf of Manaar, and is diſtant about 160 miles from Cape Comorin. From Point Pedro, at the northern extremity, to Dondrahead in the ſouthern, the extreme length is about 300 miles. The breadth is very unequal, being in ſome parts only from forty to fifty miles, while, in others, it extends to ſixty, ſeventy, and one hundred. Toward the ſouthern part it is much broader than in the northern, and nearly reſembles a ham in ſhape. The interior of the iſland abounds with ſteep and lofty mountains, covered with thick foreſts, and full of almoſt impenetrable jungles, which completely ſurround the dominions of the king of Candy. The moſt lofty range divides the iſland nearly into two parts, and ſo completely ſeparates them from each other, that both climate and ſeaſon differ on the reſpective ſides. Although Ceylon lies ſo near to the equator, the heat is not ſo oppreſſive as on many parts of the Coromandel coaſt; but this temperature is chiefly confined to the ſea-coaſt, where the ſea-breezes have room to circulate.

The principal harbours in the iſland for large ſhips are Trincomale and Point de Galle; they alſo come to anchor, and at certain ſeaſons of the year moor ſecurely in the roads of Columbo. The inferior ports, which afford ſhelter to ſmaller veſſels, are Batacolo, Barbareen, Matura, and Caltura, on the ſouth-eaſt; and on the north-weſt coaſt are Negumbo, Chilou, Calpenteen, Manaar, and Point Pedro.

The rivers are ſeldom navigable to any conſiderable diſtance inland; the two principal are, the *Malivagonga* and the *Mulivaddy*. Beſide the rivers, there are many lakes and canals communicating with them, particularly in the neighbourhood of Columbo and Nigumbo. The great diviſions of the iſland are reduced to two; the one comprehending thoſe parts under the dominion of Europeans, and the other the central country remaining to the natives.

The ſoil of Ceylon is, in general, ſandy, with only a ſmall mixture of clay. In the ſouth-weſt parts, particularly about Columbo, there is a great deal of marſhy land, very rich and productive. This tract is chiefly occupied with cinnamon plantations: and the iſland, altogether, does not produce rice ſufficient for the inhabitants, who are yearly ſupplied from Bengal and other parts.

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The ſeeds of all European plants degenerate rapidly in this climate, and yield but an indifferent produce. Ceylon poſſeſſes a great variety of animals, at the head of which muſt be placed the elephant. The ſuperiority of the Ceylon elephants does not conſiſt in their ſize, for they are in general not ſo tall as thoſe of the continent, but in their hardineſs and ſtrength, and in their great docility and freedom from vice and paſſion. The natives affirm, that the elephants of all other parts of the world make a ſalem (obeiſance) before their's, thus inſtinctively acknowledging their ſuperiority.

The domeſtic animals are oxen and buffaloes, horſes being imported from the ſmall iſlands in the Jaffnapatam diſtrict. Among the wild animals are deer, elks, gazelles, hares, wild hogs, and a ſmall ſpecies of tiger. The larger kind, called the royal tiger, is not an inhabitant of Ceylon; but there are tiger-cats, and leopards. There are no foxes; but jackals, hyænas and bears are numerous, beſide an infinite variety of the monkey tribe.

All the European domeſtic poultry are natives of Ceylon, as are alſo pheaſants, parrots, and parroquets, both wild and tame. Snipes, floricans, ſtorks, cranes, herons, water fowl of all deſcriptions, pigeons, wild and domeſticated, and a few partridges of the red-legged kind. Among the variety of birds is the honey-bird, which points out where the bees have depoſited their combs. Crows here, as in every other part of India, are exceedingly impudent and abundant. There are alſo taylor-birds, two ſpecies of fly-catchers, and peacocks, wild and tame; alſo the common fowl in a wild ſtate.

The reptiles of Ceylon are exceedingly numerous; ſerpents in particular abound, and are a great annoyance to the inhabitants. *Covra capellas*, or hooded ſnakes, *covra manillas*, whip and graſs ſnakes, are all poiſonous; the laſt three are of a very ſmall ſize. Water and wood ſnakes are harmleſs. The rock ſnake is an immenſe animal, extending thirty feet in length; but, though formidable from their ſize, they are perfectly free from poiſon. Alligators, of a prodigious ſize, infeſt the rivers of Ceylon, and have been killed twenty feet long, and as thick as the body of a horſe. There are guanas, toads, lizards, blood-ſuckers, cameleons, and leeches; as alſo flying lizards, and every ſpecies of tropical inſect. Fiſh are found in great abundance in the lakes and rivers, as well as in the ſurrounding ſeas.

Ceylon is very prolific in plants. Among the fruits are apples, oranges, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, water-melons, pumpkins, melons, ſquaſhes, figs, almonds, mulberries, bilberries, mangoes, ſhaddocks, mangoſteens, roſe-apples, cuſhoo-apples,

apples and nuts, cuſtard-apples, plaintains, jack-fruit (a ſpecies of the bread-fruit), cocoa-nuts, and ſeveral ſorts of pepper, cardamoms, coffee, and ſugar-tree (a ſpecies of palm). The tea-plant has alſo been diſcovered a native in the foreſts of the iſland. Of trees, Ceylon contains the banyan, cotton-tree, nando-wood, ſatin-wood, calamander-wood, and ebony.

As the food of the natives conſiſts chiefly of rice, ſo their greateſt labour is employed in its cultivation. They uſually ſow in July and Auguſt, and reap in February. When proper advantage is taken of the monſoon, they may have two crops per annum.

The principal cinnamon woods, or gardens, lie in the neighbourhood of Columbo. The grand garden, near the town, occupies a tract from ten to fifteen miles in length, ſtretching along from the eaſt to the ſouth of the diſtrict.

The minerals of Ceylon are numerous, and precious ſtones are particularly abundant, but not of a fine quality. The ruby, the topaz, and the diamond of Ceylon are very inferior to thoſe of Golconda, or of the Brazils. Beſide theſe, there are amethyſts, tourmalins (deſtitute of electric qualities), blue and green ſapphires, white and black chryſtal, the cat's-eye, a ſpecies of opal, and cornelians. Lead, tin, and iron ore are found in the interior, but they are never wrought or applied to any purpoſe. There were formerly ſeveral mines of quickſilver: in 1797, a ſmall one was diſcovered at Cotta, ſix miles from Columbo, from which ſix pounds were procured at a moſt ſeaſonable period for the garriſon. This mine has never ſince been worked with much activity, as the produce could not reimburſe the expenditure.

The Ceyloneſe, within the Britiſh dominion, are governed by their own native magiſtrates, under the control of the adminiſtration. All the poſſeſſions are divided into corles and diſtricts, the ſubordinate ſuperintendance of which is given to the moodeliers, or native magiſtrates, who are choſen from among the claſs of nobles, ſtyled Hondrews and Mahondrews. The moodeliers aſſiſt in collecting the revenue, ſettling the proportion of taxes and contributions, ſuperintending the peaſants, furniſhing proviſions for the garriſons, and obſerving generally the conduct of the natives. In ſome diſtricts there is a police corps to aſſiſt in enforcing the orders of government. Beſide the native Cingaleſe, who live under the dominion of the Europeans, the ſea-coaſts are inhabited by Dutch, Portugueſe, Malays, and ſettlers from the different Indian nations.

On the final ceſſion of this iſland in 1802, it was conſtituted a royal government, immediately under the direction of the Crown, which appoints the officers, and regulates the internal

ternal management. The council is compoſed of the Governor, Chief Juſtice, the Commander of the forces, and the Secretary. The revenues of all ſorts amount to about 230,000*l.* per annum, which ſum comprehends 60,000*l.* paid by the Eaſt India Company for cinnamon, and 40,000*l.* the average produce of the fiſheries.

Columbo. This town, the capital of Ceylon, and ſeat of government, is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland. The fort is placed on a peninſula projecting into the ſea, and is upwards of a mile in circumference, and ſtrong both by nature and art. The plan of the city is regular, it being nearly divided into four quarters by two principal ſtreets, which croſs each other; the ſmaller ones run parallel, with connecting lanes. The harbour, which lies on the weſt ſide, is nothing more than an open road, affording good and ſafe anchorage for ſhips for only four months, from December to April. Columbo, for its ſize, is one of the moſt populous places in India, being eſtimated to contain above 50,000 inhabitants, who are a mixture of almoſt every race of Aſiatics. The language moſt generally ſpoken, both by Europeans and Aſiatics, is the Portugueſe of India, a baſe corrupt dialect, differing much from that ſpoken in Europe.

Trincomale. This town occupies more ground than Columbo, and is naturally ſtrong; but it contains fewer houſes, and is much inferior in population and appearance. The circumference within the walls is about three miles, including a hill or riſing point immediately over the ſea, and covered with thick jungle. The fort is ſtrong, and commands the principal bays, and in particular the entrance to the grand harbour, or inner bay, which affords ſecurity to ſhipping in all ſeaſons and weathers, being ſufficiently deep and capacious, and land-locked on all ſides. It is overlooked by Fort Oſtenburgh, erected on a cliff which projects into the ſea. This fortreſs is of conſiderable ſtrength, and was originally built by the Portugueſe from the ruins of ſome celebrated pagodas which then occupied the ſpot. The harbour of Trincomale is one of our moſt valuable acquiſitions in India; when the violent monſoon commences, all veſſels on the coaſt of Coromandel and eaſt ſide of the bay of Bengal are obliged to put to ſea, and then Trincomale is their only refuge. A veſſel from Madras can arrive here in two days; and the harbour is to be made at any ſeaſon. The ſurrounding country is mountainous and woody, and not ſo fertile as to attract ſettlers, the climate being conſidered one of the hotteſt and moſt unhealthy of the iſland.

There have been but few European ſettlers, the ſociety being compoſed almoſt excluſively of military officers. The lower claſſes

claſſes are chiefly Hindoos from the oppoſite coaſt, and a few gold and ſilver ſmiths, who are native Ceyloneſe. By the exertions of Admiral Drury, a colony of Chineſe has been eſtabliſhed, who cultivate a large garden, which promiſes in time to repay their induſtry. The Admiral alſo imported cattle and poultry, which he diſtributed among the natives, to ſecure, if poſſible, a ſupply for the fleet. Timber is plenty, and of eaſy acceſs; and there are many coves where ſhips may be hove down with the greateſt ſafety at all ſeaſons; but the riſe of the tides is not ſufficient for docks.

AFRICA.

THE poſſeſſions in Africa which belong to Great Britain are, 1ſt. The iſlands which are under the government, or contributory to the intereſts of the Eaſt India Company; 2d. The ſettlement at the Cape of Good Hope; 3d. That at Sierra Leone; and, 4th. The ſmall iſlands of Senegal and Goree.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

THE ISLE OF FRANCE. The iſland now known by this name was diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1505. In 1598 the Dutch Admiral Van Neck landed, and changed its name, after that of the Prince of Orange, to Mauritius. The Dutch are ſuppoſed to have ſettled the iſland about the year 1644. In 1657 the wreck of the French ſettlers at Madagaſcar ſought refuge in the Iſle of Bourbon. The Dutch having become maſters of the Cape of Good Hope in 1712, abandoned the Mauritius, which was ſoon after occupied by the French ſettlers at Bourbon, who changed its name to the Iſle of France.

In 1735, M. de la Bourdonnau became governor of the two iſlands; and to his zeal, talents, and exertions, may be attributed the great progreſs which was made in their cultivation and improvement. He imported from the Brazils the Manioc*, a moſt nutritious and wholeſome food, upon which the negroes chiefly ſubſiſt; introduced the ſugar cane; formed plantations of cotton and indigo; and eſtabliſhed iron works. In 1738 he built a ſhip of 500 tons, the firſt ever launched at Port Louis.

* The Manioc is a root as large as a man's arm; when grated, it is made into cakes; three pounds of it are given to each negro for his daily food.

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claſſes are chiefly Hindoos from the oppoſite coaſt, and a few gold and ſilver ſmiths, who are native Ceyloneſe. By the exertions of Admiral Drury, a colony of Chineſe has been eſtabliſhed, who cultivate a large garden, which promiſes in time to repay their induſtry. The Admiral alſo imported cattle and poultry, which he diſtributed among the natives, to ſecure, if poſſible, a ſupply for the fleet. Timber is plenty, and of eaſy acceſs; and there are many coves where ſhips may be hove down with the greateſt ſafety at all ſeaſons; but the riſe of the tides is not ſufficient for docks.

He made roads, conſtructed bridges, magazines, hoſpitals, arſenals, batteries, fortifications, barracks, mills, quays, offices, and ſhops, and made canals and aqueducts. He upheld the glory of the French arms with dignity and effect; and having devoted a life of great activity to the ſervice of his country, fell a victim to faction, and expired in the Baſtile.

In December 1810, this iſland, with its dependencies, ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms, and was ceded in perpetuity, by the treaty of Paris, concluded in May 1814. It has been always conſidered as poſſeſſing extraordinary means of defence, and is capable of being placed in a perfect ſtate of ſecurity.

The population may be eſtimated at 91,000 perſons, 17,000 of whom are white, 4,000 free perſons of colour, and 70,000 blacks. The ſoil is of a reddiſh colour, mixed with ferruginous matter, and, though apparently dry, is very fertile; and its cultivation does not require extraordinary labour. There are about ſixty rivers of various ſizes, and ſeveral lakes, in the iſland. Port Louis, the ſeat of government, contains about 6,000 houſes, chiefly built of wood, and generally highly ornamented. The inhabitants are remarkable for politeneſs and hoſpitality. Many of them are of the ancient nobleſſe of France, who, being weary of the ſcenes exhibited in their native country, have found an aſylum here, where diſeaſe is hardly known, where the ſky is clear, and the climate uncommonly wholeſome and temperate, rendered ſtill more agreeable by the ſalubrity and ſoftneſs of the air, and the fine ſcenery on all ſides.

Among the trees which compoſe the groves and foreſts of this iſland, may be mentioned the cinnamon, pepper, fig, ebony, cocoa, almond, lemon, nutmeg, bamboo, latanier, mangalier, palm, pine, fir, and oak, and alſo a ſpecies of timber called *Fouraha*, admirably adapted to all the purpoſes of ſhip-building.

All the tropical fruits grow here, and many European, as apples, pears, cherries, ſtrawberries, apricots, mulberries, and olives. Of the grains, wheat flouriſhes, and its flour is preferable to that of Europe for long voyages: maize, rice, and tobacco are cultivated with advantage.

The exportable commercial productions are ſugar, cotton, coffee, indigo, nutmegs, cloves, ambergris, and iron.

Bourbon. This iſland is about twenty leagues long, and ſixteen broad. It was firſt diſcovered by the Portuguefe, who called it *Maſcareique*, or *Maſcarenhas*; other Europeans called it *Saint Appollonion*; till, in the year 1654, Mr. Flancour, governor of the French ſettlements in Madagaſcar, took poſſeſſion of it, and called it *Bourbon*. There are many good roads for ſhipping round the iſland, particularly on the north

and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where the ſhips can ride ſecure againſt the hurricanes in the monſoons. Indeed the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with ſunk rocks, that entrance into the harbours is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, continually burning and roaring. The climate, though intenſely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed by cooling morning and evening gales: ſometimes there are terrible hurricanes. No iſland can be more happily watered: every ſide is refreſhed by rivulets, ſprings, and brooks. It abounds in fruit, graſs, and cattle: produces excellent tobacco, aloes, white (but no black) pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit trees ſpontaneouſly: it even yields ſhip-timber; and many trees afford odoriferous gums and reſins; among the reſt, benzoin, of an excellent kind. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh; the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes; every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are gathered on the ſhore, and the woods are filled with game. The population is reckoned at 16,400 white perſons, 3,496 free perſons of colour, and 70,450 negro labourers. The cultivated land is reckoned at 90,000, the uncultivated at 210,000 acres.

St. Helena. This iſland, rendered peculiarly intereſting by a recent political event, is ſituated in that part of the ſouthern Atlantic, which has been otherwiſe denominated the Ethiopic Ocean, about a thouſand miles to the ſouthward of the equinoctial line, and nearly at the ſame diſtance from the weſtern ſhore of Africa. Its remote appearance, when firſt diſcovered by thoſe who approach it, is that of a blue mountain, ragged and depreſſed at the extremities, and riſing very high toward the middle parts, which are leſs diſtinctly diſcerned through the exhalations that reſt upon them. From its great elevation, and the purity of the ſurrounding atmoſphere, it is ſeen at the diſtance of ſeventy or eighty miles. Approaching nearer, the land grows more ragged and uneven, and ſeems only an irregular heap of broken rocks and hills, which, riſing abrupt and perpendicular from the water's edge, ſpire up to a great height, and form, in ſeveral places, ſtupendous overhanging cliffs; they are divided from each other by very narrow valleys, or rather by deep irregular chaſms. Nothing in nature can be imagined more barren and diſmal, than the aſpect of theſe hills and their declivities, as viewed from the ſea. They are black, ragged, and mouldering, without any tree, ſhrub, or trace of verdure; and the wild inhoſpitable air of the whole iſland, makes the remoteneſs and ſolitude of its ſituation appear ſtill more forlorn and wretched.

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The hills which border on the ſea, generally project a little way beyond the ſtony beaches of the intermediate valleys; ſo that the whole coaſt deſcribes an irregular indented line, which meaſures twenty-eight miles in circumference. The greateſt length of the iſland is ten miles, and its greateſt breadth between ſix and ſeven. The hills, neareſt the ſea, are from eight to twelve and fourteen hundred feet in height. Thoſe inland riſe much higher; and Diana's Peak, the moſt elevated part of the ridge which runs from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, is two thouſand ſix hundred and ninety-two feet above the level of the ocean. From the baſe of this central ridge, which riſes into ſeveral peaks and lofty ſummits, with very ſteep and abrupt declivities, and reſembles an elevated ground, interſecting the country, the ſurrounding hills ſlope and deſcend toward the ſea. The narrow valleys, too, which diverge all round, begin here; and the ſmall brooks that water them take their riſe in theſe heights, which, when approached, are found altogether unlike the hills on the coaſt, for they are covered with the fineſt verdure. All perſons who have written on the ſubject of St. Helena, agree in believing that it has been caſt up from the boſom of the ocean by the force of fire; and, among other circumſtances which juſtify this opinion, it is obſerved to abound in volcanic ſubſtances. It was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who ſtocked it with hogs, goats, and poultry, and uſed to touch at it for proviſions, water, and refreſhments, in their return from their India voyages. Beſide quadrupeds, the Portugueſe brought fowls, partridges, and pheaſants, which now run about the mountains in prodigious numbers; and planted a variety of fruit trees, as lemons, oranges, and pomegranates; all which, from the excellency of the climate, have increaſed ſo as to make many people imagine they were indigenous. But whether they planted a colony in it or not, certain it is, that it was totally abandoned when the Dutch took poſſeſſion; and that not a Portugueſe was found on the iſland, when, in the year 1600, the Engliſh became its maſters. After the Engliſh had once acquired St. Helena, they maintained it without diſturbance till 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurpriſe; but it was ſpeedily retaken by the brave Captain Munden, with three Dutch Eaſt Indiamen in the harbour. It is difficult to imagine that this iſland could be taken except by ſurpriſe; for it is aptly compared to a caſtle in the middle of the ocean, whoſe natural walls are too high to be ſcaled. There is no beach, except at Chapel Valley Bay, and that is fortified with a ſtrong battery of fifty large cannon, planted even with the water, and further defended by the perpetual daſhing of prodigious waves againſt the ſhore, which, without farther reſiſtance, make the landing

difficult; and a little creek, where two or three men might land from a ſmall boat, is rendered inacceſſible by a battery. As there is no other anchorage but at Chapel Valley, touching here is extremely precarious; for, the wind always ſetting from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip once overſhoots, it is a matter of great difficulty again to recover the harbour. Although St. Helena is believed to have been at one time a woody country, it is now remarkably bare; but the culture of trees is ſtrongly recommended, and encouragement to experiments is afforded by a long enumeration of indigenous and exotic plants which grow and thrive there. The coaſt is frequented by ſeventy-ſix ſpecies of fiſh, including the whale, the ſhark, and the turtle.

James Town is conſidered as the capital; but every family has its houſe and plantation on the higher part of the iſland, where they look after their cattle, hogs, goats, and poultry, fruit and kitchen gardens, without ſcarcely ever deſcending to the town in Chapel Valley, unleſs it be once a week to church, or when the ſhipping arrives; at which times almoſt every houſe in the valley is converted into a punch-houſe, or lodging for their gueſts, to whom they ſell their hogs, poultry, and fruits, receiving in exchange flour, wine, and whatever neceſſaries they want; but they muſt firſt come into the Company's warehouſe. The merchandiſe uſually laid in by the Company, are Cape wines, brandy, European or Canary wines, Batavia arrack, beer, malt, ſugar, tea, coffee, China ware, Japan cabinets, callicoes, chintzes, muſlins, ribbands, woollen cloths and ſtuffs, and a miſcellaneous variety. The governor reſides in a fort, with a garriſon; and centinels are always placed on the higheſt part of the iſland, to give notice of the approach of any veſſels. The European inhabitants are eſtimated at 1,846, the natives at 2,970. Blacks, or rather perſons of different ſhades of colour, who diſcover in the variety of their complexions and features a ſtrange and motley mixture of races, are employed in cultivating the country, in fiſhing, and in the capacity of houſehold ſervants. Theſe people, who are either deſcended from the negroes brought by the firſt European ſettlers, or who have been ſince imported from the Weſt Indies, Guinea, Madagaſcar, or the Cape of Good Hope, were, till within a few years, in a ſtate of ſlavery. But the practice has been long reſtrained in its exerciſe, and mitigated in its effects, by humane and ſalutary regulations; and has lately, to the honour of the Directors of the Eaſt India Company, been wholly aboliſhed. This act was the more naturally to be expected from the Eaſt India Company, as this was the only part of their widely extended territories where the practice of ſlavery was ever tolerated. Several regulations were at the ſame time enacted, to render the ſituation of people of colour more eaſy and comfortable,

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by which they ſeem to have been encouraged to marry and propagate; and it is a fact, that before theſe regulations were eſtabliſhed, there was an annual loſs of about ten in a hundred; but ſince the blacks have been placed under the immediate protection of the magiſtracy, and all further importation prohibited, they have increaſed.

The preceding particulars have been extracted from works publiſhed before the detention of Napoleon Bonaparte; it may be proper to add, that ſince that event, two acts of parliament have paſſed, 56 Geo. 3. chaps. 22 and 23, for more effectually detaining him in cuſtody, and for regulating the intercourſe with the iſland. By the firſt, ample powers are given to thoſe who ſhall be appointed by warrant from the Crown, to detain him ſecurely; and all perſons, ſubjects of Great Britain, reſcuing him, or aiding and aſſiſting him in his eſcape from the iſland, or in any attempt at his reſcue or eſcape, whether upon parol or without; and all perſons who ſhall aſſiſt him in quitting any other place, without the bounds of the iſland, or aſſiſt him on the high ſeas after his eſcape, are declared felons, without benefit of clergy, and are to be detained and ſent to England for trial, whether the offences were committed within or without His Majeſty's dominions. By the latter ſtatute all perſons, during the time of Bonaparte's detention, are forbidden to trade, go, ſail, or repair to the iſland, without the licenſe of His Majeſty, ſigned by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate, or without the licenſe, conſent, and permiſſion of the governor, or, in his abſence, of the deputy governor of the iſland, or of the commander for the time being of His Majeſty's naval or military forces ſtationed off or at the ſaid iſland, on pain of an information to be exhibited againſt the offender in the Court of King's Bench, for a high crime and miſdemeanor, puniſhable by fine and impriſonment, and to be tried in the county of Middleſex. There are alſo regulations to prevent improper perſons from remaining aſhore after notice, and to prevent ſhips from hovering off the iſland; but the ſtatute contains a ſaving of the rights of the Eaſt India Company.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Mr. Barrow, whoſe account of this ſettlement has been principally relied on, begins with the obſervation, that by the capture of the Cape of Good Hope and of Ceylon, the Britiſh language is now heard at the ſouthern extremities of the four great continents or quarters of the globe. Three of theſe have ſubmitted to the power of its arms; and the ſpirit

of commerce and adventurous induſtry has directed the attention of its enterpriſing ſubjects to the fourth, on the ſmall iſland of Staaten, at the extreme point of South America, where a kind of ſettlement has been formed for carrying on the ſouthern whale fiſhery. Of theſe extreme points, the Cape of Good Hope cannot be conſidered as the leaſt important, either with regard to its geographical ſituation, ſo favourable to a ſpeedy intercourſe with every part of the civiliſed world; to its intrinſic value, in the ſupply of articles of general conſumption; or as a port where the fleets of the Eaſt India Company may refreſh; aſſemble in time of war for convoy; re-eſtabliſh the health of their ſickly troops; or ſeaſon, in the mild temperature of ſouthern Africa, their recruits from Europe. In the early voyages of the Britiſh to India, the Cape was always the general rendezvous and place of refreſhment; and it was then conſidered of ſuch importance, that formal poſſeſſion was taken in 1620, in the name of King James, thirty years before the ſettlement of the Dutch.

No further notice ſeems to have been taken by the Britiſh government of this poſſeſſion at that time; nor does it appear that any kind of interference or contravention was made by it when the Dutch ſent out Van Riebeck to form a ſettlement in 1650. Till this period, the Engliſh, the Portugueſe, and the Hollanders, had indiſcriminately refreſhed their crews at the Cape; the Portugueſe formed no eſtabliſhment nearer than the banks of Rio Infanté, nearly ſix hundred miles from the Cape; and this they ſoon abandoned for want of ſhelter for their ſhipping, which they afterwards found, farther to the eaſtward, in the Bay De la Goa, ſtill in their poſſeſſion. It remained under the dominion of the United States 180 years, and then yielded to the arms of Britain. The extenſion of the ſettlement was for a time impeded by the wild beaſts of various kinds that ſwarmed in every part of the country. In the private journal of the founder of the colony it is noticed, that lions and leopards, wolves and hyenas, committed nightly depredations, under the very walls of the fort. The native Hottentots ſeem to have given them little interruption: the predominant paſſion of this weak and peaceable people for ſpirituous liquors, was their bane; a bottle of brandy was a paſſport through every horde. With this and tobacco, iron, and a few paltry trinkets, the Dutch purchaſed a portion of land and cattle, and took the reſt by force. A caſk of brandy was the price of a whole diſtrict; and nine inches in length of an iron hoop the purchaſe of a fat ox. Deprived, by their paſſion for intoxicating liquors and baubles, of the only means of exiſtence, the numbers of the natives rapidly declined; and the encroachments

ments of the ſettlers were in proportion to the diminution of the obſtacles. Government granted lands, on yearly leaſes, at the ſmall fixed rent of twenty-four rixdollars, (not five pounds ſterling,) in any part of the country. A law was alſo paſſed, that the neareſt diſtance from houſe to houſe was to be three miles; ſo that each farm conſiſted of more than five thouſand acres of land, and conſequently was rented at the rate of ſomething leſs than a farthing an acre. From a ſcarcity of water, it frequently happened that many farms were at twice that diſtance from each other. No land was granted in property, except in the vicinity of the Cape. As the Dutch advanced, the natives retired; and thoſe that remained with their herds among the new ſettlers, were ſoon reduced to the neceſſity of becoming their ſervants. No permanent limits to the colony were ever fixed under the Dutch government; the paſtoral life adopted by the peaſantry of the remote diſtricts, ſcattered them over a great extent of country; the imbecility and eaſy temper of the adjacent tribes of natives favoured avaricious views; and the government was either unwilling, or thought itſelf unable, to reſtrain them.

From a chart executed by order of Lord Macartney, it appears that the extent and dimenſions of the territory compoſing the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

Length from weſt to eaſt.	
Cape Point to Kaffer Land - - -	580 miles.
River Kouſſie to Zuureberg - - -	520
Breadth from ſouth to north.	
River Kouſſie to Cape Point - - -	315
Nieuwveldt Mountains to Plettenberg's Bay -	160
Mouth of the Tuſh-river to Plettenberg's Baaken	225

which gives a parallelogram whoſe mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233 Engliſh miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 ſquare miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants; ſo that each individual might poſſeſs eight and a half ſquare miles of land. A great portion, however, of this territory may be conſidered as an unprofitable waſte, unfit for any ſort of culture, or even for paſture. Level plains, conſiſting of a hard impenetrable ſurface of clay, thinly ſprinkled over with chryſtalliſed ſand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few ſtraggling tufts of acrid, ſaline, and ſucculent plants, and chains of vaſt mountains, that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with four graſſes only, or ſuch plants as are noxious to animal life, compoſe at leaſt one half of the colony. Theſe chains of mountains, and

the interjacent plains are extended generally in the direction of eaſt and weſt, except indeed that particular range which, beginning at Falſe Bay, oppoſite to the Cape Point, ſtretches to the northward along the weſtern coaſt, as far as the mouth of Olifant's river, which is about 210 miles.

The firſt great chain of mountains that runs eaſt and weſt, incloſes, between it and the ſouthern coaſt, an irregular belt of land from twenty to ſixty miles in width, indented by ſeveral bays, covered with a deep and fertile ſoil, interſected by numerous ſtreamlets, well clothed with graſs and ſmall arboreous or fruteſcent plants, well wooded in many parts with foreſt trees, ſupplied with frequent rains, and enjoying, on account of its proximity to the ſea, a more mild and equable temperature than the more remote and interior parts of the colony.

The next great chain is the Zevarte Berg, or Black Mountains. This is conſiderably more lofty and rugged than the firſt, and conſiſts, in many inſtances, of double, and ſometimes treble ranges. The belt incloſed between it and the firſt chain is about the mean width of that between the firſt and the ſea; of a ſurface much varied, compoſed in ſome parts of barren hills, in others of naked arid plains of clay, known to the natives, and alſo to the coloniſts, by the name of *Karroo*; and in others of choice patches of well-watered and fertile grounds. The general ſurface of this belt has a conſiderable elevation above that of the firſt; the temperature is leſs uniform; and, from the nature of the ſoil, as well as the difficulty of acceſs over the mountains, which are paſſable only in few places, this diſtrict is much leſs valuable than the other.

The third range of mountains is the Nieuwveldt's Gebergte, which, with the ſecond, graſps the great uninhabited Karroo. This deſert, making the third ſtep or terrace of ſouthern Africa, is greatly elevated above the ſecond: it is nearly 300 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and eighty in breadth; deſert, barren, and uſeleſs.

The country likewiſe aſcends from the weſtern coaſt toward the interior in ſucceſſive terraces, of which the moſt elevated, called the Roggeveld, falls in with the chain of mountains called the Nieuwveldt. The whole tract to the northward of the Cape is much more ſandy, barren, and thinly inhabited than to the eaſtward, in which direction it increaſes in beauty and fertility with the diſtance.

Such is the general outline of the territory comprehended under the name of the Cape of Good Hope. It is divided into four diſtricts, over each of which is placed a civil magiſtrate, called a *Landroſt*, who, with ſix *Hemraaden*, or a council of country burghers, is veſted with powers to regulate the police

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of his diſtrict, ſuperintend the affairs of government, adjuſt litigations, and determine petty cauſes. Their deciſions, however, are ſubject to an appeal to the court of juſtice in Cape Town. The four diſtricts are; that of the Cape, of Stellenboſch and Drakenſteen, of Zwellendam, and of Graaf Reynet; and they were ſucceſſively coloniſed in the order here mentioned.

The Cape diſtrict is chiefly compoſed of that mountainous peninſula whoſe ſouthern extremity was firſt called by Portugueſe navigators *Cabo dos Tormentos*, or Cape of Storms, and afterwards the *Cape of Good Hope*. The Table Mountain, flanked by the Devil's Hill on the eaſt, and the Lion's Head on the weſt, forms the northern extremity of the ſame peninſula. The length from north to ſouth is about thirty-ſix, and breadth eight miles. It is compoſed, properly ſpeaking, of one mountain, broken, indeed, into ſeveral maſſes, more or leſs connected by inferior gorges. Some of theſe maſſes have horizontal ſummits, others peaked, or cone-ſhaped; ſome conſiſt of naked fragments of rock, others are clothed with verdure. This peninſula is connected with the continent by a low flat iſthmus, with few irregularities of ſurface, except ſuch as are made by ridges of ſand, that ſeem to have been adventitiouſly brought by the ſtrong ſouth-eaſt winds from the ſhores of Falſe Bay, a large arm of the ſea incloſed between the Cape promontory and a chain of high mountains on the continent, to the eaſtward of it.

Falſe Bay and Table Bay, the one waſhing the ſouthern, and the other the northern ſhore of the iſthmus, are the uſual places of reſort for ſhipping. During the ſummer ſeaſon, when the ſouth-eaſt winds are predominant, which may be reckoned in general from September till May, Table Bay affords the moſt ſecure ſhelter; and Simon's Bay, a cove or indent on the weſtern ſhore of Falſe Bay, for the reſt of the year, when the northerly and north-weſterly winds are ſtrongeſt. In neither of them is there any ſort of ſecurity or convenience for heaving down and repairing ſhipping, nor do they appear to admit of any contrivance for ſuch purpoſes at a moderate expenſe.

There are alſo two ſmall bays on the weſt ſide of the peninſula; one called *Hout*, or Wood Bay, and the other Chapman's Bay. The latter is expoſed to the weſt and north-weſt, but the former is ſheltered from all winds. The confined anchorage, which is ſaid to admit of, at the utmoſt, ten ſhips only, and the eddy winds from the ſurrounding high mountains, which make it difficult for ſhips to enter and get out, are the objections that have been ſtated againſt the uſe of Hout Bay.

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All theſe bays, the paſſes of the mountains, and indeed all parts of the peninſula, are capable of being maintained, if properly garriſoned, againſt any attack that can probably be made. Moſt of the works, batteries, and lines have undergone a complete repair, with many improvements, and others have been judiciouſly added by the Britiſh engineers. The paſs at the foot of Müiſenberg, a ſteep high mountain, waſhed by Falſe Bay, and the only road of communication between Simon's Bay and the Cape, may be conſidered as impregnable, though the Dutch ſuffered themſelves very eaſily to be driven out of it. It is the Thermopylæ of the Cape; and, from the ſeveral breaſt-works lately conſtructed along the heights, a choſen band of three hundred riflemen might ſtop the progreſs of an army.

Cape Town, the capital, and indeed the only aſſemblage of houſes that deſerves the name of a town, is pleaſantly ſituated at the head of Table Bay, on a ſloping plain that riſes with an eaſy aſcent to the feet of the Devil's Hill, the Table Mountain, and the Lion's Head; the laſt ſtretching to the northward in a long unbroken hill of moderate height, is King James's Mount, (the Lion's Rump of the Dutch,) and affords ſhelter againſt the weſterly winds to ſhips in Table Bay. It commands every part of the town and the caſtle to the north-eaſt of it; and this, with the Amſterdam and Chavonne batteries, commands the anchorage in the bay. The town, conſiſting of about eleven hundred houſes, built with regularity, and kept in neat order, is diſpoſed into ſtraight and parallel ſtreets, interſecting each other at right angles. Many of the ſtreets are open and airy, with canals of water running through them, walled in and planted on each ſide with oaks; others are narrow and ill-paved. Three or four ſquares give an openneſs to the town. In one is held the public market; another is the common reſort of the peaſantry with their waggons, from the remote diſtricts of the colony; and a third, near the ſhore of the bay, and between the town and the caſtle, ſerves as a parade for the troops. This is an open, airy, and extenſive plain, perfectly level, compoſed of a bed of firm clay covered with ſmall hard gravel. It is ſurrounded by canals or ditches, that receive the waters of the town, and convey them into the bay. Two of its ſides are completely built up with large handſome houſes. The barrack, originally intended for an hoſpital, for corn magazines, and wine-cellars, is a large, well-deſigned, regular building, which, with its two wings, occupies part of one of the ſides of the great ſquare; the upper part is made to contain 4,000 men. The caſtle affords barracks for 1,000 men, and lodgings for all the officers of one regiment; magazines for artillery, ſtores,

and ammunition, and moſt of the public offices of government, are within its walls. The other public buildings are a Calviniſt and a Lutheran church; a guard-houſe, in which the burgher ſenate, or the council of burghers, meet for tranſacting buſineſs relative to the interior police of the town; a large building, in which the government ſlaves, to the number of 330, are lodged; the court of juſtice, where civil and criminal cauſes are tried.

The Lombard Bank is within the walls of the caſtle, as is alſo the *Weeſkammez*, or the chamber for adminiſtering the affairs of orphans. The population of the town is eſtimated at about 6,000 whites, incluſive of the military, and twelve thouſand ſlaves.

Such was the ſtate of this colony in 1801. At the peace of Amiens in 1802, it was reſtored to the Dutch; a meaſure which was ſeverely animadverted upon in both Houſes of Parliament. The anſwers to theſe complaints appeared at the time ſatisfactory; but the enſuing war, begun in 1803, having again placed this ſettlement in the hands of Great Britain, it was not thought proper again to reſtore it; but it was permanently ceded by the treaty of Paris.

Among the foreign productions that might be introduced, and in all probability cultivated with ſucceſs at the Cape of Good Hope, may be reckoned the different varieties of the cotton plant. Many of theſe have been already tried, and found to ſucceed in the light ſandy ſoil. Two ſpecies of indigo grow wild in ſeveral places; and the cultivated plant of India is on trial. Different ſpecies of the cactus, the plant on which the cochineal inſect feeds, grow as well as on the oppoſite continent. The tea-plant has long been in the country, but totally neglected. It is a hardy ſhrub, which, when once planted, is not eaſily eradicated; and the ſoil, the climate, and general face of the country, bear a ſtrong analogy to thoſe provinces of China to which it is indigenous. A ſmall coffee-plant, brought from the iſland of Bourbon, throve remarkably well; the ſugar-cane equally ſo; flax will give two crops in the year; and hemp, called by the Hottentots *dacha*, is produced in great quantities; not, however, for the purpoſe of being manufactured into cordage or cloth, but merely for the ſake of the leaflets, flowers, and young ſeeds, which are uſed by the ſl ves and Hottentots as a ſuccedaneum for tobacco. The dwarf mulberry grows as well as in China; but the common ſilkworm is not in the colony. Several ſpecies of wild moths, however, ſpin their coccoons among the ſhrubby plants of Africa. Among theſe is one ſpecies nearly as large as the *atlas*, and anſwers to the deſcription of the *paphia* of Fabricius, which feeds

feeds upon the *protea argentia*, the witteboom, or ſilver-tree of the Dutch, and might probably be turned to account by cultivation. Dr. Roxburgh is of opinion, that it is preciſely the ſame inſect which ſpins the ſtrong ſilk known in India by the name of tuſſach. The *palma chriſti*, from the ſeed of which is expreſſed the caſtor-oil, and the aloe, whoſe juice produces the well-known drug of that name, are natives of the country, and are met with in abundance, as is alſo the Cape olive, ſo like in habit and appearance to the cultivated plant of Europe, that there can be little doubt as to the ſucceſs of the latter; it is the more aſtoniſhing that this tree has not been introduced, ſince no vegetable oil, fit for culinary uſes, has yet been diſcovered in the colony. For this purpoſe the ſeſamum would prove a uſeful grain. In moſt of the ſandy flats are found two varieties of the *myrica cerifera*, or wax-plant, from the berries of which is procurable, by ſimple boiling, a firm pure wax; and the honey-bee is everywhere wild on the heathy ſides of the hills; but the culture of the plant and of the inſect have hitherto been neglected.

Timber for building is ſcarce and expenſive, yet little pains have yet been taken to rear it near the town. Avenues of oak-trees, plantations of the white poplar, and of the ſtone-pine, are to be ſeen near moſt of the country houſes, and have been found to thrive rapidly; but the timber they produce is generally ſhaken and unſound. The larch, it is ſuppoſed, would be uſeful and ornamental, and thrive well.

The native plant moſt cultivated in the vicinity of the town, is the ſilver-tree, of which whole woods ſtretch along the baſe of the Table Mountain, planted ſolely for fuel. The *conocarpa*, another ſpecies of *protea*, the kreupel boom of the Dutch, is alſo planted along the ſides of the hills; its bark is employed in tanning, and the branches for fire-wood. The *grandiſlora*, *ſpecioſa*, and *mellifera*, different ſpecies of the ſame genus, grow everywhere in wild luxuriance, and are collected for fuel, as are alſo the larger kinds of *ericas* or heaths, *phyllicas*, *brunias*, *polygalas*, the *olea capenſis*, *euclea racemoſa*, *ſophora*, and many other arboreous plants, that grow in great abundance both on the hills of the peninſula, and on the ſandy iſthmus that connects it with the continent. Fuel is ſo ſcarce, that a ſmall cart-load of theſe plants ſells in the town for, from five to ſeven dollars, or twenty to eight-and-twenty ſhillings. In moſt families, a ſlave is kept expreſsly for collecting fire-wood: he goes out in the morning, aſcends the ſteep mountains, where waggons cannot approach, and returns at night with two ſmall bundles of faggots, the produce of ſix or eight hours' hard labour, ſwinging at the ends of a bamboo carried

acroſs

across the ſhoulder: ſome families have two and even three ſlaves employed in this manner; and ſerious apprehenſions have been entertained of a total deficiency of this neceſſary article. Under this idea, reſearches and experiments have been made, and with appearances of ſucceſs, for the diſcovery of coal.

Moſt of the European, and ſeveral of the tropical fruits, are introduced, and cultivated with ſucceſs. In every month the table may be ſupplied with at leaſt ten different ſorts of fruit, green and dry. Oranges of two kinds, the common China and the ſmall mandarin, figs, grapes, and guavas, are all very good; peaches and apricots not bad, and very cheap. Apples, pears, pomegranates, quinces, medlars, plums, and cherries thrive well, and bear plentifully, but are not very good. Gooſeberries and currants are ſaid to have been tried, but without ſucceſs. The nectarine has not been introduced. Raſpberries are good, but ſcarce; and ſtrawberries are brought to market every month of the year. There are no filberts, nor common hazel-nuts; but almonds, walnuts, and cheſnuts, all of good quality, are plentiful; as are alſo mulberries of a large ſize and excellent flavour.

The market is likewiſe tolerably ſupplied with moſt of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms that lie ſcattered along the eaſtern ſide of the peninſula, in number about forty or fifty. On ſome of theſe farms are vineyards alſo of conſiderable extent, producing, beſides the ſupply of the market with green and ripe grapes and prepared raiſins, about ſeven hundred leaguers or pipes of wine a-year, each containing 154 gallons. Of theſe from fifty to a hundred conſiſt of a ſweet luſcious wine, well known in England by the name of Conſtantia, the produce of two farms lying cloſe under the mountains, about midway between the two bays. The grape is the muſcatel; and the rich quality of the wine is in part owing to the ſituation and ſoil, and partly to the care taken in the manufacture. No fruit but ſuch as is full ripe, no ſtalks are ſuffered to go under the preſs; precautions ſeldom taken by the other farmers of the Cape.

The vineyards, gardens, and fruiteries, are divided into ſmall ſquares, and encloſed by cut hedges of oaks, quince trees, or myrtles, to break off the ſouth-eaſt winds of ſummer, which, from their ſtrength and dryneſs, are found to injure vegetation; but the grain is raiſed on open grounds. The produce of this article on the peninſula is confined chiefly to barley, which, in this country, is preferred to oats, for feeding horſes. None of the common flat-eared barley has yet been introduced; but that hexangular kind only is known, which in ſome parts of England is called *beer*, and in others *big*. Corn is generally cultivated beyond

beyond the iſthmus, and along the weſtern coaſt, within the great north and ſouth chain of mountains. The remote diſtricts beyond theſe furniſh a ſupply of horſes, ſheep, and horned cattle.

The natural productions of the Cape peninſula, in the vegetable kingdom, are perhaps more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other ſpot of equal extent in the world. Of theſe, by the indefatigable labours of Mr. Maſſon, His Majeſty's botanic garden at Kew exhibits a choice collection; but many are ſtill wanting to complete it. Few countries can boaſt of ſo great a variety of the bulbous-rooted plants as Southern Africa. In the month of September, at the cloſe of the rainy ſeaſon, the plains at the feet of the Table Mountain, and on the weſt ſhore of Table Bay, called now the Green Point, exhibit a beautiful appearance. The fruteſcent, or ſhrubby plants, that grow in wild luxuriance, ſome on the hills, others in the deep chaſms of the mountains, and others on the ſandy iſthmus, furniſh an endleſs variety.

The peninſula of the Cape affords but a narrow field for the enquiries of the zoologiſt. The wooded kloofs, or clefts in the mountains, ſtill give ſhelter to the few remaining troops of wolves and hyenas, that not many years ago were very troubleſome to the town. Horſes are not indigenous; but were firſt introduced from Java, and ſince from different parts of the world. The grizzled and the black Spaniard from South America, where the breed runs wild, are moſt eſteemed for beauty, gentleneſs, and ſervice. Heavy waggons are chiefly drawn by oxen, which are for the moſt part indigenous. The larger kinds of birds that hover round the ſummit of the Table Mountain are vultures, eagles, kites, and crows, that aſſiſt the wolves in cleanſing the country near the town, of a nuiſance that is tacitly permitted by the police. Ducks, teals, and ſnipes, are met with in winter about the pools and periodical lakes on the iſthmus. Turtle-doves, a thruſh called the ſprew, and the fiſcal bird, the *lanius collaris*, frequent the gardens near the town. The market is conſtantly ſupplied with a variety of ſea-fiſh, caught in the bay, and everywhere along the coaſt. During the winter, whales are very plentiful in all the bays of Southern Africa, and give to the fiſhermen a much eaſier opportunity of taking them than in the open ſea. They are ſmaller, and leſs valuable than thoſe of the ſame kind in the northern ſeas, but ſufficiently ſo to have engaged the attention of a company eſtabliſhed for carrying on a fiſhery in Table Bay. Seals were once plentiful on the rocky iſlands of Falſe Bay, as is ſtill that curious animal the penguin, forming the link of connection between the feathered and the finny tribe.

Inſects

Inſects of almoſt every deſcription abound in the ſummer months, and particularly a ſpecies of locuſt, which infects the gardens, devouring, if not kept under, every green thing that comes in its way. Muſquitoes, ſand-flies, lizards, and land-turtle abound; ſcorpions, ſcolopendras, and large black ſpiders, are among the noxious inſects; and almoſt all the ſnakes of the country are venomous.

Among the moſt ſtupendous natural appearances in this place, or indeed in any other, is the eminence called the Table Mountain. The name of *Table Land* is given by ſeamen to every hill or mountain whoſe ſummit preſents to the eye a line parallel to the horizon. The north front of the Table Mountain, directly facing the town, is a horizontal line, or very nearly ſo, of about two miles in length. The bold face, that riſes almoſt at right angles to meet this line, is ſupported, as it were, by a number of projecting buttreſſes, that riſe out of the plain, and fall in with the front a little higher than midway from the baſe. Theſe, and the diviſion of the front by two great chaſms, into three parts, a curtain flanked by two baſtions, the firſt retiring, the other projecting, give it the appearance of the ruined walls of ſome gigantic fortreſs. Theſe walls riſe above the level of Table Bay to the height of 3582 feet. The eaſt ſide, which runs off at right angles to the front, is ſtill bolder, and has one point higher by ſeveral feet. The weſt ſide along the ſea ſhore, is rent into deep chaſms, and worn away into a number of pointed maſſes. In advancing to the ſouthward about four miles, the mountain deſcends in ſteps or terraces, the loweſt of which communicates by gorges with the chain that extends the whole length of the peninſula. The two wings of the front, one the Devil's Mountain, and the other the Lion's Head, make in fact, with the Table, but one Mountain. The depredations of time and the force of torrents having carried away the looſer and leſs compact parts, have diſunited their ſummits; but they are ſtill joined at a very conſiderable elevation above the common baſe. The height of the firſt is 3315, and of the latter 2160 feet. The Devil's Mountain is broken into irregular points; but the upper part of the Lion's Head is a ſolid maſs of ſtone, rounded and faſhioned like a work of art, and reſembling very much, from ſome points of view, the dome of Saint Paul's, placed upon a high cone-ſhaped hill.

To thoſe whom mere curioſity, or the more laudable deſire of acquiring information, may tempt to make a viſit to the ſummit of the Table Mountain, the beſt and readieſt acceſs will be found directly up the face next to the town. The aſcent lies through a deep chaſm that divides the curtain from the

the left baſtion. The length of this ravine is about three-fourths of a mile; the perpendicular cheeks at the foot more than a thouſand feet high, and the angle of aſcent about forty-five degrees. The entrance into this ravine is grand and awful. The two ſides, diſtant at the lower part about eighty yards from each other, converge within a few feet at the portal, which opens upon the ſummit, forming two lines of natural perſpective. On paſſing this portal, a plain of very conſiderable extent ſpreads out, exhibiting a dreary waſte and an inſipid tameneſs, after quitting the bold and romantic ſcenery of the chaſm. Here the adventurer may perhaps feel ſtrongly diſpoſed to aſk himſelf if ſuch be all the gratification he is to receive for having undergone ſo great a fatigue in the aſcent. The mind, however, will ſoon be relieved, at the recollection of the great command given by the elevation; and the eye, leaving the immediate ſcenery, will wander with delight round the whole circumference of the horizon. On approaching the verge of the mountain, all the objects on the plain below are dwindled away, to the eye of the ſpectator, into littleneſs and inſignificance. The flat-roofed houſes of Cape Town, diſpoſed into formal clumps, appear like thoſe paper fabrics which children are accuſtomed to make with cards. The ſhrubbery on the ſandy iſthmus looks like dots; and the farms and their incloſures, as ſo many lines; and the more finiſhed parts, of a plan drawn on paper. On the ſwampy parts of the flat ſummit, between the maſſes of rock, are growing ſeveral ſorts of handſome ſhrubs. The *cenœa mucronata*, a tall, elegant, fruiteſcent plant, is peculiar to this ſituation; as is alſo that ſpecies of heath called the *phyſodes*, which, with its cluſters of white flowers, glazed with a glutinous coating, exhibits in the ſunſhine a very beautiful appearance. Many other heaths, common alſo on the plains, thrive on this elevated ſituation as well as in a milder temperature. The air on the ſummit, in the clear weather of winter, and in the ſhade, is generally about fifteen degrees of Fahrenheit's ſcale lower than in Cape Town. In the ſummer the difference is much greater, when that well-known appearance of the fleecy cloud, not inaptly called the *tablecloth*, envelopes the ſummit of the mountain.

Both the boors and Dutch Africans are ſluggiſh, indolent, and inactive, extremely ignorant, and indiſpoſed to acquire knowledge, or avail themſelves, by art and induſtry, of the local and other advantages they poſſeſs. Of all the various claſſes of original ſettlers, the French refugees are conſidered as the beſt.

The Hottentots are a poor, dejected, harmleſs race, deficient in intellect, and almoſt devoid of memory. They are, for the moſt

moſt part, a wandering people, living in huts, and appear to have no particular leader, or any ſettled notions or habits. Their principal food conſiſts of fruits or roots: they ſeldom eat animal food. It is believed that the race is rapidly decreaſing.

Another claſs of natives inhabit the colony, denominated Boſgeſmen, or Men of the Buſhes, ſo extremely ſavage and ferocious, that they are deemed incapable of civilization. They are a diminutive race, not exceeding four feet high, go entirely naked, and live in the woods, carrying bows and arrows, which are ſaid to be poiſoned. Their numbers are unknown.

A third race, denominated Kaffres, is in every reſpect unlike either the Hottentots or the Boſgeſmen. They are a tall, robuſt people, bordering on black: the height of the men not unfrequently ſix feet ten inches. They are warlike, and have ſome ſort of government, under a leader or king. They are in a ſtate of abſolute hoſtility to every deſcription of Europeans, whom they conſider as intruders. Several treaties have been made between the Kaffres and the Dutch, and at length the boundary of the Kaffre land has been fixed by the great Fiſh River, which is guarded by a military force, and a line of poſts from Algoa to the utmoſt extent of the colony, a diſtance of ſix to ſeven hundred Engliſh miles.

That this country will, in time, become a very conſiderable mart for the ſale of Britiſh goods, is not to be doubted. Its productions will alſo prove, more than they actually are, a ſource of wealth, and a means of commerce to Great Britain. Already five different kinds of wine are in progreſs of cultivation, namely, *Cape Madeira*, *Stein*, *Port*, *Pontac*, and *Conſtantia*. The firſt three being dry wines, will, when improved to the fulleſt extent, be the moſt valuable as articles of conſumption and exportation. The production and perfection of brandies muſt follow that of wine; raiſins and figs may be cultivated to any extent; and every ſpecies of dried fruit obtained from France, Spain, Italy, and the iſlands and countries in the Mediterranean, may be exported from the colony of the Cape in the greateſt abundance. Cotton, coffee, and tobacco could be cultivated with great advantage. There are alſo abundant facilities for eſtabliſhing a ſouthern whale fiſhery, a trade in hides and ſkins, in elephants' teeth, and the ſkin and fleſh of the hippopotamus. Hemp is indigenous, and, with flax, might be cultivated to great advantage. There are alſo oſtriches, of which the feathers are valuable, and a great variety of medicinal herbs, and other natural productions.

SIERRA LEONE.

Sierra Leone, ſituated in Upper Guinea, is ſo called becauſe it is mountainous, and the mountains abound in lions: it is compoſed of ſeveral ſtates or kingdoms, and is well watered by a river of the ſame name, at the mouth of which an aſſociation of Engliſh gentlemen have eſtabliſhed a ſettlement, on land purchaſed of the prince of the country.

As part of the view in obtaining this poſſeſſion was to facilitate the abolition of the trade in ſlaves, it would have been neceſſary to offer ſome details, and make ſome obſervations on this traffic; but it is now, with reſpect to Great Britain and her colonies, entirely aboliſhed by act of parliament; and in the late treaties of peace and negotiations every endeavour has been uſed to procure a ſimilar reſolution from every other maritime power in Europe. The ſtatute alluded to is 47 Geo. III. ſeſſ. 1. c. 36; and it not only enacts the abolition of the trade, but provides, in terms of great ſtrictneſs, for the prevention of all ſubterfuges or contrivances, by which the intent of the law might be evaded.

The immediate cauſe of forming this ſettlement aroſe out of the circumſtances attending the American war. Great numbers of the negroes, whom the war had delivered from ſlavery on the continent of America, were ſwarming in the ſtreets of London, unemployed, and conſequently a nuiſance. A ſociety of benevolent gentlemen formed themſelves into a committee for their relief, and ſuggeſted to government the propriety of eſtabliſhing them on the coaſt of Africa, the native country of themſelves or their anceſtors. Tranſports were accordingly appointed to carry them to Sierra Leone, where it was propoſed to ſettle them, as a free and independent colony, and to give them a ſtock of proviſions, arms, and plantation tools, to begin the world with. Of 700 negroes who offered themſelves, only 411 ſailed from Plymouth; the reſt having deſerted, been diſcharged for mutinous behaviour, or died on board the tranſports by intemperance and confinement. Along with the negroes were ſhipped about 60 white people, moſt of whom were women of abandoned character. In May, 1787, they arrived at their deſtined port; and Captain Thompſon, the commander of the ſhip of war which convoyed them, made a purchaſe of land from the king of the country, for their ſettlement. But thoſe negroes, perhaps originally not very fond of labour, had acquired ſuch a habit of diſſipation in their military ſervice, which was rendered ſtill more inveterate by their begging life in London, that not even their own pre-

ſervation could induce them to work for themſelves upon the conſtruction of houſes and the cultivation of ground, which were declared to be their own property. In 1788 Mr. Granville Sharp chartered a veſſel to carry out fifty negroes, and ſupplied them with proviſions, tools, arms, and a ſum of money to buy live ſtock upon the coaſt. His benevolence was diſappointed, partly by the worthleſſneſs of ſome of the objects of it, eleven of whom deſerted before the ſhip ſailed, and partly by the cruel avarice of the maſter of the veſſel. But, before they arrived at Sierra Leone, the colony was almoſt entirely deſerted; and even the few white people ſettled in it had migrated to the ſlave factories.

In 1791, by act of parliament, were incorporated for thirty-one years, Granville Sharp, Eſquire, Samuel Wilberforce, Eſquire, and a number of other benevolent gentlemen, who believed that the trade in ſlaves was an inſuperable obſtacle to the civilization and cultivation of Africa; and that if theſe objects were duly attended to and encouraged, Africa might ſoon become an inexhauſtible ſource of raw materials, a vaſt market for Britiſh manufactures, and the theatre of a moſt extenſive trade, founded upon the ſolid and permanent principles of reciprocal advantage. This ſociety, under the name of the Sierra Leone Company, was inveſted with the uſual powers, privileges and obligations of a joint ſtock company; and the members were upon no account to deal in ſlaves, or to keep any perſon in ſlavery. The king was empowered to give the Company a grant of the peninſula of Sierra Leone, or a power to purchaſe lands from the proprietors of that part of the coaſt of Africa. The boundaries are, the river Sierra Leone on the north; the river Bunſh on the eaſt (but its courſe is from eaſt to weſt according to the maps); the river Camaranca on the ſouth; and the ocean on the weſt. The tract included within theſe boundaries cannot, however, with any degree of propriety be called a peninſula. In 1792 the principal population of this colony conſiſted of 1,131 free negroes, who had been ſettled in Nova Scotia at the concluſion of the laſt war; but, finding the climate unſuitable to their conſtitutions, had petitioned for other ſettlements; and they were accordingly conveyed, in ſixteen veſſels, at the expenſe of government, to Sierra Leone, where they arrived in March, 1792. Theſe, added to the black people already carried from London, formed a village, which got the name of *Free-town*; and by the conſtitution of the colony the white and the black inhabitants were entitled to enjoy equal rights and privileges.

In 1794, the ſettlement gave hopes that it might become flouriſhing. Free-town contained two hundred houſes, ſome of them tolerably good, diſpoſed in regular ſtreets; the ground

was cleared for ſeveral miles from the town, and cultivated; and conſequently the colony was rendered more healthy. Order and induſtry were eſtabliſhed. The fame of the colony, and of their determination not to deal in ſlaves, was ſpread throughout the continent. The king of Foulah, the ſovereign of ſome millions of people, and of a plentiful country, had ſent an embaſſy to Sierra Leone; and, in return, two gentlemen in the Company's ſervice had penetrated to Teembo, his capital, ſituated a conſiderable way up the country, where they were well received. Theſe favourable proſpects were ſuddenly reverſed: a French fleet, conſiſting of one ſhip of fifty guns and a number of privateers, two of which carried thirty-two guns each, fitted out by the ſlave-merchants of Bourdeaux and L'Orient, inſtigated and aſſiſted by two ſlaving captains, whoſe crimes had made them fly from England and America, arrived in the harbour (September 28th), took all the veſſels belonging to the Company, deſtroyed the public buildings, and plundered all the property on ſhore. After doing all the miſchief they could at Sierra Leone, they ſailed along the coaſt, and plundered ſome of the Britiſh ſlave factories. The French Government had promiſed that Sierra Leone ſhould be exempted from the ravages of the war: but it might be expected that a ſettlement, eſtabliſhed for the expreſs purpoſe of annihilating the ſlave trade, could not eſcape the pointed vengeance of ſlave-merchants, as ſoon as the laws, or cuſtoms of war, ſhould put the power of conducting hoſtile enterpriſes into private hands. From this diſaſter, however, they ſeem ſpeedily to have recovered; but the undertaking, on the whole, has not contributed materially to the extenſion of trade, the advance of national proſperity, or the civilization of Africa. The ſettlement is now ſtated to contain 28 white and 1899 perſons of colour, and to have 1500 acres of land cultivated for proviſions only.

Bulam. It ſhould not be omitted, that the Sierra Leone Company were not the only aſſociation formed for the purpoſe of introducing cultivation and fair commerce among the natives of Africa. About the end of the year 1791 a number of gentlemen formed themſelves into a ſociety (without any act of incorporation, or any protection from Government) for eſtabliſhing a colony on *Bulama*, a fertile iſland, at the mouth of the Rio Grandé, and near to ſome other great navigable rivers, or, failing that, upon ſome other iſland or diſtrict on the coaſt of Africa, for the purpoſe of cultivating the tropical productions by the hired labour of the free natives of the adjacent country. Above two hundred intended ſettlers ſailed in three veſſels; and, after an unfortunate ſkirmiſh with the natives, owing to the want of an interpreter, wherein ſome lives

were

were loſt, they purchaſed the iſland and a part of the adjacent main land, which they ſet about clearing and planting: but, by a combination of misfortunes, the colony dwindled away, and, in the end of the year 1793, Mr. Beaver, a lieutenant in the navy, after having, with great ſpirit and unremitting perſeverance, kept together the ſmall deſponding remains of the colony till then, and having baffled the repeated attempts of a treacherous neighbouring prince to ſurpriſe him, was obliged to abandon the fruits of his labours. Such was the event of an attempt to eſtabliſh a colony, which certainly poſſeſſed many of the advantages, and was exempted from many of the diſadvantages, uſually attending ſuch undertakings.

SENEGAL, GOREE, &c.

Senegal. This iſland, ſituated in the river ſo called, is about one mile and a quarter in length, from north to ſouth, and almoſt half a mile in breadth, from eaſt to weſt. It is compoſed of a bed of looſe ſand, productive of nothing but what is forced by art and the richeſt manure. It is of value ſolely for the purpoſes of trade. The population is ſaid to conſiſt of 600 white and 3400 perſons of colour.

Goree. This is a ſmall iſland in the Atlantic, near the coaſt of Africa, about two miles in circumference, within a cannon ſhot of the ſhore. Notwithſtanding its ſituation, the air is ſaid to be cool and temperate all the year round, and the inhabitants refreſhed by alternate breezes from the land and ſea. Beſide the multitude of ſurrounding rocks, that render it almoſt inacceſſible, except at two particular bays, it has a fort with works, which renders it a place of great ſtrength. Springs have been diſcovered, the gardens have been planted with excellent fruit-trees, all kinds of vegetables have been raiſed in great abundance, and from a ſmall, barren, and deſpicable iſland, it is made one of the ſafeſt and pleaſanteſt ſettlements in Africa. It is inhabited by 50 white and 3000 people of colour.

AMERICA.

The ſeparation of the United States of North America from Great Britain, effected by arms, confirmed by treaty, and eſtabliſhed by time, renders it unneceſſary, in this work, to trace the riſe and progreſs of thoſe provinces. The account therefore to be given of the Britiſh empire in this quarter of

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the world will arrange itſelf under the following heads:—1ſt. Poſſeſſions on the continent of North America, with the iſlands immediately annexed: 2d. The ſettlement at Honduras in the gulf of Mexico: 3d. The Weſt Indies, beginning with the Bahamas, proceeding to Jamaica, the Virgin Iſlands, the Leeward and Windward Charibbee Iſlands, down to Trinidad: and, 4th. Poſſeſſions on the continent of South America, with the dependent iſles.

CONTINENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

Under the general name of Britiſh America, is comprehended the vaſt extent of country, bounded ſouth by the United States of America and the Atlantic Ocean; eaſt by the ſame ocean and Davis's Straights, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of Hudſon's Bay Charter; and weſtward indefinitely: lying between 42° 30′ and 70° north latitude; and between 50° and 96° weſt longitude from Greenwich.

Britiſh America is divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which are annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudſon Bay and the iſland of Cape Breton; 3. New Brunſwick; 4. Nova Scotia, to which is annexed the iſland of St. John. Beſide theſe, there is the iſland of Newfoundland.

CANADA The province of Canada, otherwiſe called Quebec, after having been long in the poſſeſſion of the French, was wreſted from them by Great Britain in 1759, and finally ceded to the conquerors by the definitive treaty in 1763. It is bounded on the north by Hudſon's Bay, Eaſt Main, and Labrador; on the eaſt by Labrador, the bay of St. Lawrence, and New Brunſwick; on the ſouth by the United States; and on the weſt by Lake Winnipeg and parts of America hitherto imperfectly deſcribed. It is computed to extend from the gulf of St Lawrence and iſle of Anticoſti in the eaſt, to the Lake of Winnipeg in the weſt, 33 degrees, or about 2000 geographical miles: the breadth from the Lake of Erie in the ſouth may extend at leaſt to N. lat. 49°, comprehending 6 degrees, or 360 geographical miles. Others make its extent much more conſiderable toward the north, and eſtimate it at 500 miles. Its mean breadth is not above 200.

UPPER CANADA. The old province of Quebec was divided into two provinces, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Upper and Lower Canada, by an act of parliament paſſed in the 31ſt year of His Majeſty's reign. The line of diviſion commences at

at a ſtone boundary on the north bank of Lake St. Francis, at the Cove weſt of *Point au Bodêt*, in the limit between the townſhip of Lancaſter, and the ſeignory of New Longueil; running in the direction of north thirty-four degrees weſt, to the weſternmoſt angle of the ſaid ſeignory of New Longueil; then along the north-weſtern boundary of the ſeignory of Vaudreuil, running north twenty-five degrees eaſt, until it ſtrikes the Ottawas river. It aſcends that river, into the Lake Tomiſcanning, and from the head of the ſaid lake, proceeds by a line drawn due north, until it ſtrikes the boundary line of Hudſon's Bay; including all the territory to the weſtward and ſouthward of the ſaid line, to the utmoſt extent of the country diſtinguiſhed by the name of Canada. The province of Upper Canada is bounded to the eaſtward by the United States of America; that is, by a line from the forty-fifth degree of north latitude along the middle of the river Iroquois, or Cataraqui, into Lake Ontario: through the middle of this likewiſe, until it ſtrikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of the communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of that lake, until it arrives at the water communication between it and Lake Huron; thence again through the middle of Lake Huron, to the water communication between it and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior northward, to the iſles Royale and Philipeaux, to the Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods; thence through that lake to the moſt north-weſtern point thereof, and from thence in a due weſt line to the river Miſſiſſippi. To the weſtward, and to the northward, weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, its boundaries are indefinite, the northern limits of Louiſiana not being thoroughly known. To the northward it is bounded by Hudſon's Bay, as ſettled by the treaty of Utrecht, in the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, extending weſt indefinitely. The province is divided into eight diſtricts. 1. The eaſtern, embracing the counties of Glengary, Stormont, Dundas, Preſcot, and Ruſſell. 2. Diſtrict of Johnſtown, embracing the counties of Grenville, Leeds, and Carleton. 3. The midland diſtrict, embracing the counties of Frontenac, the incorporated counties of Lenox and Addington, Haſtings, and Prince Edward; with all that tract of country which lies between the diſtrict of Johnſtown, and a line drawn north ſixteen degrees weſt from the north-weſt angle of the townſhip of Rawdon, until it interſects the northern limits of the province; together with all the iſlands in the Ottawas river, wholly or in greater part oppoſite thereto. 4. The diſtrict of Newcaſtle, embracing the counties of Northumberland and Durham, with all the land behind them,

confined within their extreme boundaries, produced north ſixteen degrees weſt, until they interſect the northern limits of the province. 5. The home diſtrict, comprehending the counties of York and Limcoe. 6. The diſtrict of Niagara, embracing the counties of Lincoln and Haldimand, with ſuch of the iſlands lying in the river Niagara or Lake Erie as are wholly or in greater part adjacent thereto; together with the beach at the head of Lake Ontario, between the outlet of Burlington Bay and the townſhip of Saltfleet, together with the promontory between Burlington Bay and Coote's Paradiſe. 7. The diſtrict of London; comprehending the counties of Norfolk, Oxford, and Middleſex, with ſo much of the province as lies to the weſtward of the home diſtrict, and the diſtrict of Niagara, to the ſouthward of Lake Huron, and between them and a line drawn due north, from a fixed boundary (where the eaſternmoſt limit of the townſhip of Oxford interſects the river Thames), till it arrives at Lake Huron. 8. The weſtern diſtrict; comprehending the counties of Eſſex and Kent, together with ſo much of the province as is not included within any other diſtrict thereof. Theſe diſtricts are divided into twenty-three counties; namely, Glengary, Stormont, Preſcot, Ruſſell, Dundas, Grenville, Leeds, Carleton, Frontenac, incorporated counties of Lenox and Addington, Haſtings, Prince Edward, Northumberland, Durham, York (conſiſting of two ridings), Haldimand, Norfolk, Oxford, Middleſex, Kent, and Eſſex.

The principal towns are Kingſton, York, and Niagara. *Kingſton* is neat, and tolerably well built, at the head of the river Saint Lawrence, on the north ſhore. It occupies the ſite of Old Fort Frontenac; it was laid out in the year 1784, and has a barrack, an hoſpital, church, and ſeveral reſpectable houſes, a gaol, and a court-houſe. A cove near the town affords a good harbour for ſhipping. Large veſſels ſeldom go below Kingſton, though the river is navigable ſeventy or eighty miles further: the reaſon is, that the channel is too narrow to admit of return with a tolerably fair wind. *York*, the ſeat of government, is ſituated within an excellent harbour of the ſame name, made by a long peninſula, which embraces a baſon of water ſufficiently large to contain a conſiderable fleet. Veſſels may ride ſafely at its entrance during the winter. On the extremity of the peninſula, which is called Gibraltar Point, are erected commodious block-houſes and ſtores, commanding the entrance to the harbour. On the main land, oppoſite the point, is the garriſon, ſituated on another point, made by the harbour and a ſmall rivulet, which, being improved by ſluices, affords an eaſy acceſs for boats to go up to the ſtores. The barracks being

being built on a knoll, are well ſituated for health, and command a delightful proſpect of the lake to the weſt, and the harbour to the eaſt. The Government Houſe has a ſtriking appearance. There are public buildings, where the Legiſlative Council, Houſe of Aſſembly, and Courts of Law ſit. The gaol is a tolerable building, and in a healthy ſituation. The town is not large, but well furniſhed with every neceſſary convenience; and the market is well ſupplied. The ſtreets are tolerably uniform, and exhibit a handſome proſpect from the lake. *Niagara*, formerly called Newark, ſtands at the north-eaſt angle of the county of Lincoln, nearly oppoſite to the fort of that name, at the entrance of Niagara river; the weſtern point, which forms the mouth of the river, is called Miſſaſſague point. It is a handſome town, of about a mile ſquare, and its ſtreets at right angles. Here is a gaol and court-houſe, originally built for the home diſtrict; and near to it, on the heights above Navy Hall, is Fort George, where there are quarters for nearly a regiment of ſoldiers. The firſt parliament of Upper Canada met here, but ſince York has been made the ſeat of government, of courſe the legiſlative council and aſſembly meet there.

Lower Canada. This, which is the more wealthy and populous of the two diviſions, lies on both ſides the river St. Lawrence. In this diviſion are contained Quebec, Montreal, and Trois Rivieres.

Quebec. This city, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all Britiſh America, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, which is partly of marble and partly of ſlate. At the time when the city was founded, in 1608, the tide, it is ſaid, reached the foot of the rock; but ſince that time the river has ſunk ſo far, that a large ſpot of ground is left dry, and on this a large ſuburb, ſtyled the *Lower Town*, is built. It ſtands at the foot of a rocky precipice, about forty-eight feet high. The houſes in the lower town, (as alſo thoſe in the upper,) are of ſtone, ſtrong and well built, and chiefly inhabited by merchants, being conveniently near their buſineſs. The fortifications are extenſive, but irregular. The natural ſituation of the town renders its defence eaſy. If attacked by ſhips in the river, their guns cannot injure the works in the upper town, though the ſhips themſelves would be liable to great injury from the cannon and bombs of theſe elevated ramparts. The lower town is defended by a platform flanked with two baſtions, which at high water and ſpring tides are almoſt level with the ſurface. A little above the baſtion, to the right, is a half baſtion, cut out

out of the rock; a little higher, a large battery; and higher ſtill, a ſquare fort, the moſt regular of all the fortifications, and in which the governor reſides. The paſſages which form a communication between theſe works are extremely rugged. The rock which ſeparates the upper from the lower town, extends, with a bold and ſteep front a conſiderable diſtance weſtward, along the river St. Lawrence. The lower town is well ſupplied with water, which is ſometimes ſcarce in the upper town.

Montreal. This city, the ſecond in Lower Canada, ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, and has its name from a high mountain about the middle of it, which it ſeems to overlook like a monarch from his throne; hence the French call it *Montreal*, or *Royal Mountain*. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland had become a delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the convenience of life. The city, around which is a very good wall built in the time of Louis XIV., forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-formed ſtreets, and, when taken by the Britiſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner, and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouth ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide on which the town ſtands declines gradually toward the water. Montreal contains about 600 houſes, few of them elegant, and, ſince 1760, it has ſuffered much from fire. The river St. Lawrence is about three miles wide at Montreal. There is an iſland near the middle of the river oppoſite the city, at the lower end of which is a mill with eight pair of ſtones, all kept in motion at the ſame time by one wheel. The works are ſaid to have coſt 11,000*l.* ſterling. A large mound of ſtone, built out into the river, ſtops a ſufficiency of water to keep the mill in continual motion; and, what is very curious, at the end of this mound or dam veſſels paſs againſt the ſtream while the mill is in motion. Perhaps there is not another mill of the kind in the world.

Trois Rivieres. This town was ſettled by the French in 1610, and is ſo called from the junction of three waters a little below the town, where they fall into the river St. Lawrence. The town ſtands on the northern bank of the St. Lawrence, at that part of the river called Lake St. Pierre. It is but thinly inhabited, but commodiouſly placed for the fur trade, and was formerly the ſeat of the French government, and the grand mart to which the natives reſorted. It is pleaſantly ſituated in a fertile

a fertile country, about 50 miles ſouth-weſt of Quebec. The inhabitants are moſtly rich, and have elegant well-furniſhed houſes, and the country round wears a fine appearance.

WATERS. The principal rivers in Canada are the St. Lawrence, Utawas, Montreal, Deſpaires, Detroit, Saguenay, Holland, Matchedaſh, Niagara; and there are many others. The lakes are of prodigious magnitude, reſembling inland ſeas. Among them may be remembered lakes Champlain, Superior and Inferior, Ontario, Erie, and Simcoe. Theſe are but a few out of innumerable names, as a great number of rivers fall into every one of the lakes. The magnitude of theſe ſheets of water may be conceived when it is ſtated that Lake Superior is 1500 miles in circumference; that Champlain covers 500,000 acres; and that of Lake Ontario 2,390,000 acres are within the United States, beſide as large a portion in the Britiſh territory. Each of the lakes has a great many iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited, and, where neceſſary, fortified. They produce abundance of delicious fiſh, many ſpecies of which are unknown in Europe.

FALLS OF NIAGARA. Omitting particular deſcriptions of theſe waters, which from their ſameneſs muſt be unintereſting, it is yet conſidered proper to extract an account of one of the greateſt wonders of nature, the falls of Niagara. The river Niagara connects the north-eaſt end of Lake Erie with Lake Ontario, is about thirty miles in length from Fort Erie to Niagara fort, and forms a part of the boundary between the United States and Upper Canada. It receives Chippeway, or Welland River, from the weſt, and Tonewanto Creek from the eaſt, and emboſoms Great and Navy iſlands. Fort Sluſher ſtands on the eaſt ſide near Navy Iſland. The *falls* are oppoſite Fort Sluſher, about ſeven or eight miles ſouth of Lake Ontario, and form the greateſt curioſity which this, or indeed any other country, affords. In order to have a tolerable idea of this ſtupendous cataract, it will be neceſſary to conceive that part of the country in which Lake Erie is ſituated, to be elevated above that which contains Lake Ontario, about 300 feet; the ſlope which ſeparates the upper from the lower country is generally very ſteep, and in many places almoſt perpendicular; it is formed by horizontal ſtrata of ſtone, great part of which is limeſtone. The ſlope may be traced by the north ſide of lake Ontario, near the bay of Torento, round the weſt end of the lake; thence the direction is generally eaſt. Between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie it croſſes the ſtrait of Niagara and the Genneſſee River, after which it becomes loſt in the country toward Seneca Lake. It is to this ſlope the country is indebted both for the cataract of Niagara and the great falls of Genneſſee. The cataract of Niagara,

Niagara, ſome have ſuppoſed, was formerly at the northern ſide of the ſlope, near the landing, and that from the great length of time and the quantity of water, and diſtance which it falls, the ſolid ſtone is worn away for about ſeven miles up toward Lake Eric, and a chaſm is formed which no perſon can approach without terror. Down this chaſm the water ruſhes with a moſt aſtoniſhing noiſe and velocity after it makes the great pitch. The river is about 742 yards wide at the falls. The perpendicular pitch of this vaſt body of water produces a ſound that is frequently heard at the diſtance of twenty miles, and in a clear day and fair wind, forty, and even fifty miles. A perceptible tremulous motion in the earth is felt for ſeveral rods round. A heavy cloud or fog is conſtantly aſcending from the falls, in which rainbows may always be ſeen when the ſun ſhines. This fog or ſpray, in the winter ſeaſon, falls upon the neighbouring trees, where it congeals and produces a moſt beautiful cryſtalline appearance. It is conjectured that the water muſt fall at leaſt ſixty-five feet in the chaſm: the perpendicular pitch at the cataract is 150 feet; other accounts ſay only 137 feet: to theſe add 58 feet which the water falls the laſt half-mile immediately above the falls, and we have 273 feet, which the water falls in the diſtance of ſeven miles and a half. Animals ſwimming near the rapids above the great cataract are inſtantly hurried to deſtruction. Juſt below the great pitch the water and foam may be ſeen puſſed up in large ſpherical figures; they burſt at the top, and project a column of the ſpray to a prodigious height, and then ſubſide, and are ſucceeded by others which burſt in like manner. This appearance is moſt remarkable about half way between the iſland that divides the falls and the weſt ſide of the ſtrait, where the largeſt column of water deſcends. The deſcent into the chaſm of this ſtupendous cataract is very difficult, on account of the great height of the banks; but when once a perſon has deſcended, he may go up to the foot of the falls, and take ſhelter behind the deſcending column of water, between that and the precipice, where there is a ſpace ſufficient to contain ſeveral people in perfect ſafety, and where converſation may be held without interruption from the noiſe, which is leſs here than at a conſiderable diſtance.

Soil, Climate, and Productions. The eaſtern part of Lower Canada, between Quebec and the gulf of St. Lawrence, is mountainous; and a few ſcattered mountains alſo occur between Quebec and the mouth of the river Utawas; but higher up the river St. Lawrence the face of the country is flat. The ſoil conſiſts principally of a looſe dark-coloured earth, ten or twelve inches deep, lying on a bed of cold clay. This thin mould,

mould, however, is very fertile, and yields plentiful crops, although it is worked every year. The manure chiefly uſed, ſince the practice of manuring has been introduced, is marle, which is found in great quantities in many places along the ſhores of the river St. Lawrence. The ſoil of Lower Canada is peculiarly adapted to the growth of ſmall grain. Tobacco alſo thrives well in it; but the culture is neglected, except for private uſe; and more than half of what is uſed is imported. The ſnuff produced from the Canadian tobacco is held in great eſtimation. Culinary vegetables arrive at great perfection in Canada, which is alſo the caſe with moſt of the European fruits. The currants, gooſeberries, and raſpberries are very fine; the latter are indigenous, and are found very abundantly in the woods. A kind of vine is alſo indigenous, but the grapes produced by it in its uncultivated ſtate are very poor and ſour, and not much larger than ſine currants. In the foreſt there is a great variety of trees; ſuch as beech, oak, elm, aſh, pine, ſycamore, cheſnut, and walnut; and the ſugar maple-tree is found in almoſt every part of the country. Of this tree there are two kinds; the one called the ſwamp-maple, being generally found on low lands; and the other the mountain, or curled maple, from its growing upon high dry ground, and from the grain of its wood being beautifully variegated with little ſtripes and curls. The former yields more ſap than the latter, but its ſap affords leſs ſugar.

The air of Lower Canada is very pure, and the climate uncommonly ſalubrious, except in the weſtern parts of the province, high up the river St. Lawrence. From Montreal downwards the climate very much reſembles that of the ſtates of New England. This difference of ſalubrity in the two parts of the province is aſcribed to the different aſpects of the country; to the eaſt, Lower Canada, like New England, is mountainous, but to the weſt it is an extended flat. The extremes of heat and cold are amazing; Fahrenheit's thermometer, in the months of July and Auguſt, riſing to 96°, while in winter, the mercury generally freezes. The tranſitions from heat to cold are leſs ſudden, and of courſe leſs injurious to the conſtitution, in Canada than in the United States, and the ſeaſons are much more regular. The ſnow begins to fall in November; which is the moſt unpleaſant, cold, and gloomy part of the year; but in December the clouds are generally diſperſed, the froſt ſets in, and the ſky aſſumes a bright hue, continuing for weeks without a ſingle cloud. The greateſt degree of cold occurs in January; and it is ſometimes ſo intenſe, as to endanger a perſon who is expoſed to it, being froſt bitten; but the coldeſt days have intervals of warm weather. The winter is the ſeaſon of general

general amuſement; and the Canadians tranſport themſelves over the ſnow by means of their carioles and ſledges, each of which holds two perſons and a driver, and is uſually drawn by one horſe, with aſtoniſhing ſpeed as well as great pleaſure In May the thaw comes on very ſuddenly, and, in its progreſs, the ice in the river St. Laurence burſts with the noiſe of a cannon, and paſſes toward the ſea with a tremendous rapidity and violence. As ſoon as the winter terminates, the rapidity of vegetation is aſtoniſhing. Spring has ſcarcely appeared before it is ſucceeded by ſummer. In a few days the fields are clothed with the richeſt verdure, and the trees regain their foliage. The grain ſown in May affords a rich harveſt by the latter end of July.

GOVERNMENT. By the act of the 31ſt Geo. III. already mentioned, the executive power in each province was veſted in the governor; and a legiſlative council, and an aſſembly, were appointed for each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, having power to make laws with the conſent of the governor; but the king may declare his diſſent at any time within two years after the bills are received, in which caſe they become void. The legiſlative council of Lower Canada conſiſts of fifteen members; that of Upper Canada of ſeven. They are ſummoned by the governor under the King's authority, and appointed for life, unleſs they forfeit their office by an abſence of four years, or by ſwearing allegiance to any foreign power. The aſſembly of Lower Canada conſiſts of fifty members, and that of Upper Canada of ſixteen; and they are choſen by the freeholders in the towns and diſtricts. The aſſembly is not to continue longer than four years, but it may be diſſolved ſooner; and the governor is bound to convene it at leaſt once in each year. The governor, together with ſuch of the executive council as ſhall be appointed by the king for the affairs of each province, are a court of civil juriſdiction for hearing and determining appeals; ſubject, however, to ſuch appeals from their ſentence as exiſted before the ſtatute. All lands in Upper Canada are granted in free and common ſocage; and alſo in Lower Canada, when the grantee ſhall deſire it, ſubject, nevertheleſs, to alterations by an act of the legiſlature; and the preſent ſyſtem of judicature in each province was eſtabliſhed by the Quebec bill of 1774. But whilſt the French laws were ſuffered by the Quebec bill to exiſt, in order to conciliate the affections of the French inhabitants, who were attached to them, although the abolition of theſe laws would be favourable to the intereſts of civil liberty, the criminal law of England was happily eſtabliſhed through every part of the country. The whole of Britiſh America, Canada included, is ſuperintended

tended by an officer ſtyled Governor-general of the four Britiſh provinces in North America, who, beſides other powers which he poſſeſſes, is commander in chief of all the Britiſh troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a Lieutenant-governor, who, in the abſence of the Governor-general, is inveſted with all the powers requiſite to a chief magiſtrate.

Religion. Every form of religion is completely tolerated in both provinces; but the Roman Catholic religion is that of a great majority of the inhabitants; and by the Quebec bill of 1774, eccleſiaſtics of that perſuaſion are legally empowered to recover all the dues, which, before that period, they were accuſtomed to receive, as well as tithes, from the Roman Catholic inhabitants; nevertheleſs, they cannot exact any dues or tithes from Proteſtants, or from lands held by Proteſtants; although ſuch lands might formerly have been ſubjected to dues and tithes for the ſupport of the Roman Catholic church. Theſe dues and tithes are, however, ſtill to be paid to perſons appointed by the governor and reſerved in the hands of His Majeſty's receiver-general, for the ſupport of the Proteſtant clergy actually reſiding in the province. By the act of 1791 it was alſo ordained, that the governor ſhould allot out of all lands belonging to the crown, granted after that period, one-ſeventh for the benefit of the Proteſtant clergy, to be ſolely applicable to their uſe; and it is required that all ſuch allotments ſhould be particularly ſpecified in every grant of waſte lands; otherwiſe the grant is void. The governor, with the advice of the executive council, is authorized to conſtitute parſonages or rectories, and to endow them out of theſe appropriations, and to preſent incumbents to them, ordained according to the rites of the church of England. The clergy of this church, in both provinces, conſiſt at preſent only of twelve perſons, including the biſhop of Quebec; whereas thoſe of the church of Rome amount to 120, viz. a biſhop, three vicars-general, and 116 curates and miſſionaries, all of whom are reſident in the lower province, except five curates and miſſionaries. The number of the diſſenting clergy, in both provinces, is conſiderably ſmaller than that of the clergy of the church of England.

Population. Mr. Colquhoun eſtimates the population of theſe provinces at 300,000, excluſive, it is preſumed, of the native Indians, who are perfectly free and independent. The French is ſtill the general language, the Engliſh being confined to the Britiſh ſettlers.

Commerce. The imports into Canada conſiſt of earthen-ware, hard-ware, and houſehold furniture, various articles of woollen,

woollen, linen, and cotton haberdaſhery, hoſiery, ſtationery, leather, and its manufactures, grocery, wines, ſpirits, Weſt Indian produce, cordage of every deſcription, and the coarſe manufactures of iron. Some domeſtic manufactures of linen and of coarſe woollen cloths are carried on in moſt parts of Canada; but the greater part of theſe articles is ſupplied by Great Britain. The exports from Canada conſiſt of wheat, flour, biſcuit, timber, ſtaves, and lumber of various kinds, dried fiſh, oil, ginſeng, and various medicinal drugs, but principally of furs and peltries.

NEW BRITAIN. The country lying round Hudſon's Bay, or the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, has obtained the general name of New Britain, and is attached to the Government of Lower Canada. About 1576, Frobiſher diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coaſts; but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure; the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that led into the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the Frozen Zone. His ardour for diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtayed here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip, and the reſt of the men returned home. Although the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated Hudſon's Bay, yet, the project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to England. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent, and the trade is confided to a chartered company.

The principal rivers which water this country are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekeſko, Churchill, Nelſon, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Mooſe rivers, all which empty into Hudſon's and James's Bay, from the weſt and ſouth. The mouths of all the rivers are filled with ſhoals, except Churchill's, in which the largeſt ſhips may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obſtructed

ſtructed by ſand banks. All the rivers, as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from ten to ſixty feet perpendicular. Down theſe rivers the Indian traders find a quick paſſage; but their return is a labour of many months. All the land is dreary, barren, and inhoſpitable.

A ſuperintendant of trade, appointed by the Governor-general of the four Britiſh provinces, and reſponſible to him, reſides at Labrador. The Company have ſeveral forts, viz. Prince of Wales Fort, Churchill River, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, on the weſt ſide of the bay. The reſidents are one hundred and forty-ſix.

Hudſon's Bay is about 300 leagues wide from north to ſouth. The eaſtern boundary of the bay is Terra de Labrador; the northern part has a ſtraight coaſt, facing the bay, guarded with a line of iſles innumerable. A vaſt bay, called the Archiwinnipy Sea, lies within it, and opens into Hudſon's Bay, by means of Gulf Hazard, through which the Beluga whales paſs in great numbers. The entrance of the bay from the Atlantic Ocean, after leaving to the north Cape Farewell, and Davis's Straits, is between Reſolution Iſles on the north, and Button's Iſles on the Labrador coaſt, to the ſouth, forming the eaſtern extremity of Hudſon's Straits.

Hudſon's Bay Company. This aſſociation was chartered in 1670: it has a governor, a deputy-governor, and a committee. Its trade is carried on by three ſhips: its exports amount to 16,000*l.*; which produce returns, chiefly in beaver ſkins and rich furs, to the value of 29,000*l.*; yielding to government a clear revenue of 3,734*l.* This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. The ſkins and furs procured by this trade, when manufactured, afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe to great advantage.

In 1782, two of the ſmall ſettlements, called Fort Prince of Wales, and Fort York, were invaded by a French armament, conſiſting of one ſhip of 74 guns (the only ſhip of the line that ever was in Hudſon's Bay) and two frigates of 36 guns each, with 250 ſoldiers, 40 artillery-men, cannons, and mortars, and commanded by M. de la Perouſe, who was afterward loſt in a voyage of diſcovery in the South Sea. Againſt ſo formidable an attack the Company's few ſervants had no defence, and conſequently ſubmitted at diſcretion. M. de la Perouſe, according to his orders, demoliſhed the forts, whereby the Company loſt property to the amount, as is ſaid, of 500,000*l.*; he then retired, having firſt humanely landed arms and proviſions for the defence and ſupport of ſome of the Company's ſervants, who had fled into the woods on his approach.

NEW BRUNSWICK. This ſettlement is bounded weſt by the diſtrict of Maine, from which it is ſeparated by the river St. Croix, and a line drawn due north from its ſource to the Canada line; north by the ſouthern boundary of the province of Lower Canada, until it touches the ſea-ſhore at the weſtern extremity of Chaleur Bay; then following the various windings of the ſea-ſhore to the Bay of Verte, in the Straits of Northumberland; on the ſouth-eaſt it is divided from Nova Scotia by the ſeveral windings of the Miſſiquaſh river, from its confluence with Beau Baſon (at the head of Chegnecto Channel) to its main ſource; and from thence by a due eaſt line to the Bay of Verte. The northern ſhores of the Bay of Fundy conſtitute the remainder of the ſouthern boundary. All iſlands included in the above limits belong to this province, which is about 260 miles long and 170 broad. The coaſt is indented with numerous bays and commodious harbours; the chief are Chaleur, Merrimichi, Verte, which laſt is ſeparated from the Bay of Fundy by a narrow iſthmus of about eighteen miles wide; Bay of Fundy, which extends fifty leagues into the country; Chegnecto Bay, at the head of the Bay of Fundy; Paſſamaquoddy Bay, bordering upon the diſtrict of Maine. At the entrance of this bay is an iſland granted to ſeveral gentlemen in Liverpool, who named it Campo Bello, and at a very conſiderable expence attempted to form a ſettlement, but failed. The chief rivers are St. John's, Merrimichi, Petit-codiac, Memramcook, Riſtigouche, and Nipiſiguit. There are numerous lakes, as yet without names. Grand Lake, near St. John's River, is thirty miles long, and eight or ten broad; and in ſome places forty fathoms deep.

The principal towns are St. John's, St. Anne's, which is the ſeat of government, and Frederick's Town. The population is eſtimated at 60,000. The productions are ſimilar to thoſe of Canada, with the advantage of an excellent and inexhauſtible fiſhery; 410 veſſels are employed in this trade, meaſuring 87,600 tons.

NOVA SCOTIA. This province is ſeparated on the N. E. from Cape Breton Iſland, by the Gut of Canſo; on the north it has a part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Straits of Northumberland, which divide it from the iſland of St. John; on the weſt it has New Brunſwick and the Bay of Fundy; on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt the Atlantic Ocean. Its length is about 235 miles, from Cape Sable on the ſouth-weſt, to Cape Canſo on the north-eaſt. Its extreme breadth is 88 miles; but between the head of Halifax harbour and the town of Windſor, at the head of the ſouth-eaſt arm of the baſin of Minas, it is only about twenty-two miles broad. It contains 8,789,090 acres;

acres; of which three millions have been granted, and two millions are ſettled, and under improvement. Nova Scotia has many ſpacious harbours, bays, and coves of ſhelter; the chief are Canſo, Halifax, or Chebucto Bay, Chedabucto, Frederick, George, Torbay, Charlotte, King's, Barrington, Townſend, St. Mary's, Annapolis Royal, the Baſin of Minas, the Bay of Fundy; and a vaſt number of capes, lakes, and rivers. The moſt remarkable mountains are the high land of Aſpotagoen, and the Ardois mountain. The ſouthern ſhores preſent rather an unfavourable appearance, being in general broken and ſtony; but the innumerable iſlands along its coaſts, coves, and harbours, though generally compoſed of rocky ſubſtances, appear deſigned by nature for the drying of fiſh, being covered with materials for fiſh flakes and ſtages; and there is land ſufficient for paſtures and gardens, to ſerve the purpoſes of fiſhermen. The back country wears a more promiſing appearance; and at Cornwallis, Windſor, Horton, Annapolis, Cumberland, Cobequid, Pictou, and along the northern ſhores of the province, there are extenſive and well cultivated farms. The gradual improvement in huſbandry, which has been encouraged by the laudable efforts and ſucceſsful experiments of an agricultural ſociety, afford good ground to expect that Nova Scotia may become a flouriſhing colony. The lands in general on the ſea-coaſt, the county of Lunenburg excepted and a few hills of good land, are rocky, and interſperſed with ſwamps and barrens. The growth in general is a mixture of ſpruce, hemlock, pine, fir, beech, and ſome rock maple, which furniſh an inexhauſtible ſupply for ſhipbuilding and other purpoſes. The coaſt abounds with fiſh of various kinds, as cod, ſalmon, mackerel, herring, alewives, trout, and other ſpecies; and being near to the banks of Newfoundland, Quero, and Sable Banks, fiſheries, under proper management and regulations, might be carried on with certainty of ſucceſs. There are mines of coal at Cumberland, and on the Eaſt River, which falls into Pictou harbour. There is plenty of bog and mountain ore in Annapolis townſhip, on the borders of Nictau River, and a bloomery is erected there. Copper has been found at Cape D'Or, on the north ſide of the baſin of Minas. The forts of this province are Fort Edward, Cumberland, and Cornwallis.

Nova Scotia is divided into eight counties; Hants, Halifax, King's, Annapolis, Cumberland, Sunbury, Queen's, and Lunenburg. Theſe are ſubdivided into above forty townſhips.

HALIFAX. The town of Halifax, the capital of this province, was ſettled by a number of Britiſh ſubjects in 1749.

It is ſituated on a ſpacious and commodious bay or harbour, called Chebucto, of a bold and eaſy entrance, where a thouſand of the largeſt ſhips might ride with convenience and ſafety. The town is built on the weſt ſide of the harbour, on the declivity of a commanding hill, whoſe ſummit is 236 feet perpendicular from the level of the ſea. It is laid out into oblong ſquares; the ſtreets parallel, and at right angles. The town and ſuburbs are about two miles in length, and the general width a quarter of a mile. At the northern extremity is the King's naval yard, completely built, and ſupplied with ſtores of every kind for the royal navy. The harbour is reckoned inferior to no place in Britiſh America, from its being open, and acceſſible at all ſeaſons, when almoſt all others are ſometimes locked up with ice; alſo from its entrance, ſituation, and proximity to the Bay of Fundy, and principal interior ſettlements. The population of Nova Scotia is eſtimated at 100,000 perſons; 328 veſſels are employed, bearing 42,222 tons.

Cape Breton. The iſland, or rather collection of iſlands, called by the French *Les Iſles de Madame*, which lie ſo contiguous, that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the iſland of Cape Breton, lies between latitude 45° 28″ and 47° north, and between 59° 44″ and 61° 29″ weſt longitude, and about forty-five leagues to the eaſtward of Halifax. It is about 109 miles in length, and from 20 to 84 in breadth, and is ſeparated from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait, called the *Gut of Canſo*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It is ſurrounded with little ſharp pointed rocks, ſeparated from each other by the waves, above which ſome of their tops are viſible, and interſected with lakes and rivers. The great Bras D'Or is a very extenſive ſheet of water, which forms into arms and branches, and opens an eaſy communication with all parts of the iſland. All its harbours are open to the eaſt, turning toward the ſouth. On the other parts of the coaſt there are but a few anchoring places for ſmall veſſels, in creeks, or between iſlets. The harbour of St. Peter, at the weſt end of the iſland, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fiſhery. This iſland was conſidered as annexed to Nova Scotia, in reſpect to matters of government, till 1784; when it was erected into a ſeparate government, by the name of Sydney. There is a great proportion of arable land on this iſland, and it abounds in timber and hard wood, ſuch as pine, beech, birch, maple, ſpruce, and fir.

Cape Breton may be conſidered as the key to Canada; and the very valuable fiſhery in its neighbourhood depends for its proſecution on the protection of this iſland; as no nation can carry

carry it on without ſome convenient harbour of ſtrength to ſupply and protect it, and Louiſburg is the principal one for theſe purpoſes. The peltry trade was ever a very inconſiderable object. It conſiſted only in the ſkins of a few lynxes, elks, muſk rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of a red, ſilver, and grey colour. Some of theſe were procured from a colony of Micmac Indians, who had ſettled on the iſland with the French, and never could raiſe more than ſixty men able to bear arms: the reſt came from St. John's, on the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages are now derived from the coal-mines, which are ſituated near the entrance of the harbour, the working of which, and the fiſhery, are the chief employment of the inhabitants. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than ſix or eight feet below the ſurface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithſtanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, theſe mines would probably have been forſaken, had not the ſhips which had been ſent out to the French iſlands wanted ballaſt. In one of theſe mines, a fire has been kindled, which could never yet be extinguiſhed. The principal towns are Sydney, the capital, and Louiſburg, which has the beſt harbour in the iſland. The inhabitants are 3,000.

SAINT JOHN'S. This territory, which is alſo called *Prince Edward's Iſland*, is ſituated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coaſt of Nova Scotia, to which government it is annexed. It is 117 miles in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt. The medium breadth is 20 miles; but between Richmond Bay on the north, and Halifax Bay on the ſouth, it is not above three miles broad. The other bays on the north ſide are London harbour, Grand Raſtied, and St. Peter's; thoſe on the ſouth ſide, Egmont, Halifax, and Hillſborough. On the eaſt ſide, Three River harbour, and Murray harbour. It has ſeveral fine rivers, a rich ſoil, and is pleaſantly ſituated. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, in 1745, the inhabitants quietly ſubmitted to the Britiſh arms. While the French poſſeſſed this iſland, they improved it to ſo much advantage, as that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. When taken, it had 10,000 head of black cattle upon it, and ſeveral of the farmers raiſed 12,000 buſhels of corn annually. Its rivers abound with ſalmon, trout, and eels; and the ſurrounding ſea affords plenty of ſturgeon, plaice, and moſt kinds of ſhell-fiſh. The iſland is divided into three counties, viz. King's, Queen's, and Prince's counties; which are ſubdivided into fourteen pariſhes, conſiſting of twenty-ſeven townſhips, which in all

make 1,363,400 acres, the contents of the iſland. This iſland is of the higheſt importance to the United Kingdom, whether conſidered with relation to the Americans, or as an acquiſition of a great maritime power. Mr. Stewart has remarked, in his account of that iſland, that "the fiſhery carried on, from the American ſtates, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, for ſome years paſt, is very extenſive, and is known to be one of the greateſt ſources of the wealth of the eaſtern ſtates, from which about 2000 ſchooners, of from 70 to 100 tons, are annually ſent into the gulf; of theſe, about 1400 make their fiſh in the ſtate of Belleiſle, and on the Labrador ſhore, from whence what is intended for the European market is ſhipped off, without being ſent to their own ports. About 600 American ſchooners make their fares on the north ſide of the iſland, and often make two trips in a ſeaſon, returning with full cargoes to their own ports, where the fiſh are dried; the number of men employed in this fiſhery is eſtimated at between fifteen and twenty thouſand, and the profits on it are known to be very great. To ſee ſuch a ſource of wealth and naval power on our own coaſts, and in our very harbours, abandoned to the Americans, is much to be regretted, and would be diſtreſſing, were it not that the means of re-occupying the whole, with ſuch advantages as muſt ſoon preclude all competition, is afforded in the cultivation and ſettlement of Prince Edward's Iſland."

The capital is Charlotte Town, the reſidence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the iſland; beſides which, there are George Town, Prince's Town, Hillſborough Town, Pownal Town, and Maryborough Town. The inhabitants are computed to be 5000.

NEWFOUNDLAND. The iſland thus denominated is on the eaſt ſide of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, ſeparated from the coaſt of Labrador on the north by the Straits of Belleiſle, which is about twenty-one miles wide. It is 381 miles long, and from 40 to 287 miles broad. The coaſts are ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland are reaped no great advantages, for the cold is long continued and ſevere, and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; and the ſoil which has been explored, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This iſland is chiefly valuable for the great fiſhery of cod carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. This fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchants, but a ſource of livelihood to many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the

royal

royal navy. This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but France and the United States of America have certain rights reſerved to them in reſpect of fiſhing. Veſſels lie in the bays and harbours of this iſland in perfect ſecurity, being well ſheltered, except at the entrance, by the mountains. When a ſhip has taken her ſtation, ſhe is immediately unrigged, and a proper place ſelected for curing and keeping the fiſh, and huts erected for the men who work aſhore: a large ſcaffold is alſo raiſed at the water's edge, where the number of ſhallops deſtined for the fiſhery is got ready, and alſo ſecured, after the ſeaſon is over, till the following ſummer. Ships firſt entering any bay, have the privilege of applying theſe to their own uſe. The maſter who arrives firſt in the ſeaſon in each of the numerous harbours, is for that year ſtyled Lord of the Harbour; he alſo ſettles diſputes among the fiſhermen. The great bank of Newfoundland, which may properly be deemed a vaſt mountain under water, is not leſs than 330 miles in length, and about ſeventy-five in breadth. The depth of water upon it varies from 15 to 60 fathoms, and the bottom is covered with a vaſt quantity of ſhells, and frequented by immenſe ſhoals of ſmall fiſh, moſt of which ſerve as food to the cod, that are inconceivably numerous and voracious. It is a fact, in proof of the plenty of this fiſh, that although ſo many hundred veſſels have been annually loaded with them, for two centuries paſt, yet the prodigious conſumption has not yet leſſened their plenty. The fowls called penguins are certain marks for the bank, and are never found off it; theſe are ſometimes ſeen in flocks, but more uſually in pairs.

The principal towns are Bonaviſta, Placentia, and St. John's; and there are two dependent iſles, called St. Pierre and Miquelon. Newfoundland gives employment, annually, to 495 veſſels, meaſuring 61,543 tons, navigated by 4950 ſeamen, beſide 2000 fiſh ſhallops, meaſuring about 20,000 tons, which may employ, at the leaſt, 6000 men more; taking 600,000 quintals of fiſh, which at fifteen ſhillings per quintal, together with ſalmon, cod oil, and ſeal oil, amount at leaſt to 500,000*l.* The number of inhabitants is ſaid to be 18,000.

THE BERMUDAS.

The Bermudas received their name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who diſcovered them in 1527. They were not inhabited until 1609, when Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas

Gales were ſhipwrecked there, in their voyage to Virginia, and reſided nine months. Having built a ſhip of the cedar, which abounded in theſe iſlands, they ſailed from thence to Virginia. Sir George Somers was a ſecond time driven on theſe iſlands, where he died. From him they received a ſecond name, being frequently called the Somer Iſlands. The number of this cluſter, in the form of a ſhepherd's crook, has been computed to be about 400. The iſlands are walled with rocks; and by reaſon of theſe, together with ſhoals, are difficult to approach. The entrances into the harbours and channels are narrow as well as ſhoaly, and are more dangerous by reaſon of the ſtrong current which ſets to the north-eaſt from the Gulf of Florida. They contain from 12 to 13,000 acres of poor land, of which nine parts in ten are either uncultivated, or reſerved in woods, which conſiſt chiefly of cedar, for the ſupply of ſhip-building. There are about two hundred acres laid out in cotton. The main iſland is about ſixteen miles long, and from one to two in breadth. The pariſh of St. George is an iſland to the eaſtward of the main land, in which ſtands the town of St. George, containing about 500 houſes; near to that is St. David's iſland, which ſupplies the town with proviſions. The air is healthy, and a continual ſpring prevails; the houſes are built of a white ſoft ſtone, which is cut with a ſaw like timber, but being waſhed with lime, becomes hard; theſe ſtones are greatly in requeſt throughout the Weſt Indies, for filtering water. Theſe iſlands produce no exportable article worth mentioning; and are only important to this country, becauſe they would be dangerous in the poſſeſſion of an enemy. St. George's has long ſince been made a free port, with all the privileges poſſeſſed by that of Naſſau and others in the Bahamas; and in 1811 further privileges were granted to the Bermudas, in conſequence of the war declared againſt this country by the United States of America. All veſſels of every nation, even thoſe of the enemy, carrying produce to theſe iſlands, are protected both in the outward and homeward voyage. They have alſo been the chief ſtation for our ſhips of war, and the head quarters of the admiral of the fleet employed in theſe ſeas, in conſequence of the American war. The population is ſaid to be 5000 whites, 200 free perſons of colour, and 5000 ſlaves. The treatment of theſe is ſo mild, and their condition ſo happy, that they are truſted as crews of privateers, and refuſe every opportunity of being emancipated or ſeparated from their maſters.

HONDURAS.

In the Carribbean ſea, and in a bay which bears its name, is placed the Britiſh ſettlement of Honduras. It is ſituated in the province of Yucatan, or Jucatan, a peninſula extending from the province Honduras to the ſea northwardly, forming the Bay of Campeachy on the weſt, and the Bay of Honduras on the eaſt. It extends from about ſixteen to twenty-one degrees north latitude, and from about eighty-four to ninety-four degrees weſt longitude. This part of America was diſcovered by Columbus in 1502.

An Engliſh ſettlement had been formed in this place, by means of the Indian natives; it was recogniſed by the court of Madrid in the treaty of Paris in 1763, and continued to flouriſh till the year 1779, when, without giving the ſix months notice ſtipulated by that treaty, or indeed any notice, the Spaniards ſuddenly fell upon, plundered, and impriſoned the ſettlers, who received no compenſation for their wrongs, but were reinſtated in their poſſeſſions after four years' captivity, at the peace in 1783; ſince which time it has been enjoyed without any actual interruption, although once threatened with invaſion.

The town of *Balize*, which is placed at the mouth of the river of the ſame name, is the only regular eſtabliſhment which the Engliſh ſettlers have formed in this country. It is immediately open to the ſea, and though the ſituation is low, it is pleaſant and healthy; the houſes are about two hundred. As there are no roads, the only acceſs to the interior is by water, which is eaſy and well provided for.

In all directions, the approach of the extenſive coaſt which lies contiguous to the Bay of Honduras, is attended with imminent anxiety and danger; and the difficulty of the navigation is alarmingly demonſtrated by the numerous remains of veſſels that have been wrecked on the different reefs and keys which are abundantly diſperſed along it. Theſe keys are ſo like each other, that the moſt experienced ſeaman, when placed amongſt them, often becomes fatally perplexed from the impoſſibility he finds of accurately aſcertaining his ſituation. Many of the keys contiguous to the ſhores of Honduras are of conſiderable extent; and ſome of them in particular ſpots are cultivated, chiefly by the perſons engaged in turtling and fiſhing. The largeſt, named *Turneff*, is a cluſter of ſeveral ſmall ones divided by creeks and lagoons. *St. George's Key*, about three leagues diſtant, in a north-eaſt direction from Balize, is a moſt agreeable healthful ſpot, and contains a number of good houſes. This

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is much reſorted to as a place of retirement by the inhabitants of the ſettlement during the hot months: the purity of the air and other advantages connected with it, render it likewiſe a deſirable retreat for the ſick and convaleſcent. At one period, St. George's Key was the chief place of trade in this part of the world, on which the merchants almoſt wholly reſided; and where the veſſels engaged in it depoſited their cargoes and again took in their lading. *Ambergreaſe Key*, to the northward of Balize, is alſo of conſiderable ſize, abounding with extenſive freſh water lakes, and, at moſt ſeaſons, plentifully ſtocked with many kinds of game. This key is likewiſe ſaid to produce logwood, and the more valuable kind of dye-wood, named Braſiletto. Theſe keys were long the choſen haunts of the Buccaneers who infeſted this part of America; and from which, at moſt ſeaſons, they could iſſue forth, equipped and ſupplied to carry on their depredations in the neighbouring ſeas, or on the contiguous ſhores, and to which, when purſued, they might retreat, protected by the intricacy of a navigation where none durſt follow.

The principal articles imported from Europe into the ſettlement of Honduras, are linens of all kinds, printed cottons, muſlins of the moſt coſtly manufacture, negro clothing, broad cloths, hoſiery, hats fine and coarſe, ſhoes, boots, earthen and glaſs wares, ſilver and plated goods, hardware and cutlery; of the latter large quantities, particularly of cutlaſs blades, which are uſed for clearing the grounds of underwood. Salted proviſions of different kinds, either from Britain or America, are alſo continually demanded for the ſupport of the ſlaves. The vaſt conſumption, independent of any re-exportation, of moſt of the foregoing articles, is extraordinary, if the magnitude of the ſettlement be conſidered. This is in a great degree occaſioned by the comparative affluence of the greater number of the perſons compriſing it. A very profitable commerce in cattle is carried on by a few individuals of the ſettlement with the Spaniards who are reſident on what is called the Main. It is principally conducted by barter, the Spaniards exchanging their cattle for linen, cloths, ſugars, rum, and other commodities. It is conjectured that a profit of five or ſix hundred per cent. is commonly realiſed by this traffic. The cattle obtained in this way are either ſlaughtered, or purchaſed by the cutters of mahogany, to whom they are peculiarly valuable, for the purpoſe of draught. They are large and well formed, and the meat they afford extremely well flavoured. On the Spaniſh Main is likewiſe raiſed an uncommonly large and ſerviceable breed of mules: theſe are uſually exported to Jamaica.

Few countries, perhaps, ever poſſeſſed higher advantages, in an

an agricultural point of view, than the greater part of that which is placed contiguous to the Bay of Honduras. The cutting of mahogany and logwood forms a principal occupation, and was indeed the motive for the eſtabliſhment; but the productions common to the Weſt India iſlands, with a conſiderable variety of ſuch as are more familiarly known to that part of the continent which is comprehended within the tropics, might unqueſtionably be cultivated at Honduras, with equal, if not, in many inſtances, with ſuperior ſucceſs. The ſugar-cane thrives with the richeſt luxuriance; coffee grows equally well; cotton and indigo would amply reward the cultivator; the Indian arrow-root is abundantly produced, and pimento has been tried under the moſt encouraging appearance of profit. Before the removal of the Engliſh ſettlers from the Moſquito ſhore, ſeveral ſugar plantations had been formed on Black River; and the ſugar and rum which they furniſhed were very generally deemed, by competent judges, not inferior to the ſame articles the produce of Jamaica. Rice, maize, or Indian corn, yams of various ſpecies, caſſava-root, of which is made a very palatable bread, and the plantain, all flouriſh under the united influence of a tropical climate and generous ſoil, ſcarcely requiring labour or attention. The pine-apple, banana, and melon, being very commonly interſperſed between the rows of plantains, contribute to heighten the luxuriance of the ſcene; and the mountain cabbage, occaſionally rearing its lofty head far above the whole, adds, no inconſiderable ſhare of grandeur to the general effect.

The domeſtic animals of Honduras are ſuch as are generally known in moſt parts of Europe. The paſturage afforded them being extenſive and good, cattle, particularly oxen and cows, thrive uncommonly well; and the latter ſupply a plentiful quantity of milk. Sheep alſo, and goats, are found to ſucceed, the laſt in a moſt prolific degree. The ſheep does not loſe its fleece, as it invariably does in the Weſt Indies.

Of fiſheries, the moſt profitable, and conſequently the moſt purſued in this country, is that of the turtle, of which a few find their way to the London market; but the principal conſumption is domeſtic. The perſons engaged in turtling are generally inhabitants of the different keys in the neighbourhood of Balize. From the uncommon variety of fiſhes with which the ſea contiguous to this coaſt abounds, it might be conjectured that the curing ſeveral ſorts of them would form an advantageous employment. Of the kinds which might more immediately anſwer this purpoſe, may be named the baracouta, and jew-fiſh, both exceedingly well flavoured and firm. The former is often caught of ſixty pounds weight; the latter frequently

quently upwards of two hundred. The manati is alſo taken on the coaſt and in the neighbouring lagoons, the fleſh of which, either freſh or ſalted, is conſidered a great delicacy. The weight of this ſometimes exceeds a thouſand pounds. The inferior kinds are very numerous. Among the choiceſt fruits, beſide bananas, melons of ſeveral ſorts, and pine-apple in equal variety, are oranges of ſuperior flavour, lemons, limes, ſhaddocks, mango, guava, mammee, caſhew apple, tamarind, prickly pear, avocada pear, pomegranate, wild plums of many ſpecies, ſea grapes, and other ſorts. It may alſo be worthy of remark, that the grape of Madeira has been introduced into Honduras, and gives every promiſe of becoming familiariſed to its new ſituation.

The river *Balize* gives its name to the principal eſtabliſhment, and has the oldeſt and moſt valuable mahogany works connected with it. Some of the wood-cutters have placed themſelves as high up this river as two hundred miles from its entrance; from the ſea to this diſtance, it is perfectly navigable for all the purpoſes required; the continuance of it beyond this, though conjectured to be far, is not very accurately known. The *Sibun*, or *Sheeboon*, as it is uſually called, is the next river of importance; its navigation is much bolder than that of the Balize, and vaſt quantities of mahogany are floated down it, and from the many branches and creeks with which it is united. The ſides, for a conſiderable diſtance, are thickly ſtudded with plantations, and the ſoil connected with it is generally conſidered of rich and productive quality. During the rains, the floods in the Sibun are extremely great; for, in a few hours, it has been known to riſe from its original level upwards of fifty feet: its decreaſe is uſually as rapid; and little inconvenience, excepting the occaſional loſs of a few cattle, happens to the ſettlers from this circumſtance. Its entrance from the ſea is about three leagues in a ſouthwardly direction from the river Balize. Several of the rivers comprehended within the Engliſh limits, plentifully abounding with both mahogany and logwood, were abandoned at the commencement of hoſtilities with Spain in 1804. The cauſes of this meaſure were the immediate vicinity of theſe rivers to the poſſeſſions of Spain, and the inſecurity that might attend the unprotected ſettler in his employment. Our eſtabliſhments of this kind were more particularly confined to the *Rio-Neuvo*, and *Rio-Honda*; each of them a ſhort diſtance from the ſettlement of Balize, and both navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burthen.

The adminiſtration of juſtice is veſted in a bench of ſeven magiſtrates, elected annually. The office of ſuperintendant of the ſettlement has always been filled by a perſon of military rank,

rank, combining the duties of the firſt civil magiſtrate with thoſe of commandant of the troops. The ſuperior courts are held three times in each year; other courts are alſo occaſionally convened, to determine matters of inferior kind, and to adjuſt the differences of tranſient perſons.

This ſettlement, including that of the Moſquito ſhore, where logwood is cut, is ſaid to contain 170 white perſons, 1000 free perſons of colour, and 3000 ſlaves. Theſe round numbers are of courſe derived from computation, and not the reſult of a regular cenſus.

THE WEST INDIES.

ALTHOUGH in deſcribing theſe poſſeſſions the authority of Brian Edwards is principally relied on, yet his arrangement and diſtribution of the matter has not always been followed, the geographical poſition of the iſlands appearing to be a preferable courſe; but with that exception, his hiſtory has been regularly purſued, and the more readily becauſe his general obſervations, narratives, and deſcriptions once adverted to, repetition becomes unneceſſary.

SITUATION. To that prodigious chain of iſlands which extends in a curve from the Florida ſhore, on the northern peninſula, to the gulf of Venezuela in the ſouthern, is given the denomination of the *Weſt Indies*, from the name of India originally aſſigned to them by Columbus. This illuſtrious navigator planned his expedition, not, as Raynal and others have ſuppoſed, under the idea of introducing a New World to the knowledge of the old; but, as already has been ſhown, principally in the view of finding a route to India by a weſtern navigation. So firmly perſuaded was Columbus of the truth and certainty of ſuch a diſcovery, that he continued to aſſert his belief of it after the diſcovery of Cuba and Hiſpaniola; not doubting that thoſe iſlands conſtituted ſome part of the eaſtern extremity of Aſia. Even when the diſcovery of the Pacific ocean had demonſtrated his miſtake, all the countries which Columbus had viſited ſtill retained the name of the Indies; and, in contradiſtinction to thoſe at which the Portugueſe, after paſſing the Cape of Good Hope, had at length arrived by an eaſtern courſe, they were now denominated the *Indies of the Weſt*. Foreigners call the iſlands *Antilia*, or *Antilles*; but to the Britiſh nation, the name beſtowed by Columbus is abundantly more familiar; and thus the whole of the new hemiſphere is, with us, commonly compriſed under three great diviſions; North America, South America, and the Weſt Indies.

dies. But, ſubordinate to this comprehenſive and ſimple arrangement, neceſſity or convenience has introduced more minute and local diſtinctions. That portion of the Atlantic, which is ſeparated from the main ocean to the north and to the eaſt, by the iſlands already mentioned, although commonly known by the general appellation of the Mexican gulf, is itſelf properly divided into three diſtinct baſins: the Gulf of Mexico, the Bay of Honduras, and the Charibbean Sea. The latter takes its name from that claſs of iſlands which bound this part of the ocean to the eaſt.

Climate. Moſt of theſe countries being ſituated beneath the tropic of cancer, the circumſtances of climate, as well in regard to general heat, as to the periodical rains and conſequent variation of ſeaſons, are in all nearly the ſame. The temperature of the air varies indeed conſiderably, according to the elevation of the land; but, with this exception, the medium degree of heat is alike in all the countries of this part of the globe. A tropical year ſeems properly to comprehend but two diſtinct ſeaſons, the *wet* and the *dry*; but as the rains in theſe climates conſtitute two great periods, the year is deſcribed, like that of Europe, under four diviſions. The vernal ſeaſon commences with May, attended with gentle ſhowers. After theſe rains have continued about a fortnight, the weather becomes dry and ſettled, and the tropical ſummer ſun reigns in full glory. Cloudleſs nights ſucceed to ſcorching days, refreſhed, however, by alternate land and ſea breezes. The autumn begins in September, when the breezes no longer mitigating the violence of heat, rain deſcends in floods, thunder reverberates from the hills, and that moſt dreadful of all viſitations, the hurricane, may be expected. Laſtly, in the period from the beginning of December to the end of April, the atmoſphere is cleared by the north wind, and there is a ſucceſſion of ſerene and pleaſant weather, refreſhing, invigorating, and forming the paradiſe of the valetudinarian and the aged. This is rather a general than a particular account, as it varies in various iſlands; mountains, and many other circumſtances, occaſioning conſiderable difference. The *trade wind* blows in theſe climates from the eaſt, and its collateral points, nine months in the year.

Animal Productions. Paſſing over, as unconnected with the preſent ſubject, the accounts which are given of the original inhabitants, and their miſerable reduction or extermination by the Spaniards, it will be neceſſary to mention, in a general way, the principal animal and vegetable productions which diſtinguiſh theſe ſettlements. In tracing the ſeveral tribes of quadrupeds, properly ſo called, which anciently exiſted in the Weſt Indies, it will be found that the Windward, or Cha-

ribbean Iſlands, poſſeſſed all that were known in the larger iſlands, and ſome ſpecies peculiar to themſelves. The enumeration of them follows: 1. The agouti. 2. The pecary. 3. The armadillo. 4. The opuſſum. 5. The racoon. 6. The muſk rat. 7. The alco: and 8. The ſmaller monkey, of ſeveral varieties. Beſide theſe animals, and thoſe furniſhed by the rivers and the ſea, the woods were peopled with two very extraordinary creatures; both of which anciently were, and ſtill are, not only uſed as food, but accounted ſuperior delicacies. Theſe are the iguana, and the mountain crab. The iguana (or, as it is more commonly written, *guana*) is a ſpecies of lizard; a claſs of animals, about which naturaliſts are not agreed whether to rank them with quadrupeds, or ſerpents. The iguana is commonly about three feet long, and proportionably bulky. It lives chiefly among fruit trees, and is perfectly gentle and innoxious. It is now become ſcarce in the iſlands which are well peopled, and was never much uſed as food by the Engliſh; but thoſe who have eaten it, pronounce it equal, in flavour and wholeſomeneſs, to the fineſt green turtle. The mountain crab, which is now alſo nearly exterminated, is remarkable for living in a ſort of regulated government. Immenſe troops were uſed to iſſue from the mountains, and proceeding in a line, mathematically direct, except where inſurmountable impediments obſtructed them, depoſit their ſpawn in the ſand of the ſea ſhore, and then in equal order return to the mountains, whither, when able, their young were uſed to follow them. They are very delicate food.

The woods and the marſhes equally abound with wild fowl, of infinite variety, and exquiſite flavour. The ſhores have a great variety and plenty of excellent fiſh; and among the native eſculents, the moſt valuable are the maize, the mainock or caſſava, and the dioſcorea or yam; the fruits are in great variety and profuſion, and of excellent quality. Among the beſt may be enumerated the anana, or pine-apple, the mangoe, the orange, the lemon, the ſhaddock, the avocada pear, the tamarind, the melon, and the cocoa nut. The ſtaple production of the iſlands is ſugar; the planting of the cane, the crop, the boiling, the diſtillation of rum, and the various other proceſſes incident to it, are matters of long detail, and laborious inquiry. Cotton is the next produce in point of importance, and after it indigo; then in their reſpective degrees come coffee, cacao, ginger, arnotto, aloes, and pimento.

GOVERNMENT. The ſyſtems of the different colonies conform, as nearly as poſſible, to that of the mother country. Their different orders of judicature are exactly like thoſe of England; and their legiſlatures, in general, conſiſt of three diſtinct

diſtinct branches; a governor, repreſenting the crown; a council, or upper houſe; and a body of delegates, repreſenting the people at large. The firſt two are neceſſarily imperfect, becauſe they are not independent; but the members of the laſt are fairly and equally choſen by their conſtituents.

THE GOVERNOR. Every chief governor in the Britiſh Weſt Indies is appointed by letters patent under the great ſeal of Great Britain. He receives, through courteſy, the title of Excellency, and is veſted with the following powers: firſt, as captain-general and commander-in-chief, he has the actual command of all the land forces within his government (except only when a general officer is employed on the ſtaff,) and he commiſſions all officers of the militia. He appoints the judges of all the different courts of common law; nominates and ſuperſedes, at will, the cuſtodes of the ſeveral pariſhes, juſtices of the peace, and other ſubordinate civil officers. He has authority alſo, with the advice of his council, to ſummon general aſſemblies; he appoints the place of their meeting, and when met, poſſeſſes a negative voice in the legiſlature; for, without his conſent, no bill paſſes into a law; and he may, from time to time, as he alone ſhall judge needful, adjourn, prorogue, and diſſolve all ſuch general aſſemblies. He has the diſpoſal of all ſuch civil employments as the crown does not diſpoſe of; and even in them, if vacancies happen, the governor appoints *pro tempore*; and the perſons ſo appointed are entitled to all the emoluments, until perſons nominated to ſuperſede them arrive in the colony. The governor claims the privilege alſo, in extraordinary caſes, of ſuſpending ſuch civil officers even as act immediately under the King's authority, or by commiſſion from the boards of treaſury and admiralty, as the attorney and advocate-general, the collectors and comptrollers of the cuſtoms, and of nominating other perſons to act in their room, until the King's pleaſure can be known. To all theſe privileges is added the authority, in criminal matters, of extending pardon to delinquents, except only in caſes of murder and high treaſon; and even in theſe the governor may reprieve, until the ſignification of the royal pleaſure.

Secondly, the governor has the cuſtody of the great ſeal, and, in moſt of the colonies, preſides ſolely in the High Court of Chancery.

Thirdly, the governor is ordinary, and collates to all vacant church benefices. He has alſo the power of granting probate of wills, and adminiſtration of the effects of perſons dying inteſtate. He grants licenſes, and is ſole judge in all matters relating to the conſiſtorial or eccleſiaſtical law.

Fourthly, the governor preſides in the Court of Error, of which

which he and the council are judges, to hear and determine all appeals, in the nature of writs of error, from the ſuperior courts of common law.

Fifthly, the governor is alſo vice-admiral within the extent of his government. As ſuch, he is entitled to the rights of *jetſam* and *flotſam*, and in time of war, iſſues his warrant to the judge of the court of vice-admiralty, to grant commiſſions to privateers.

Laſtly, a colonial governor, beſides various emoluments ariſing from fees, fines, forfeitures, and eſcheats, has an honourable annual proviſion ſettled on him by act of aſſembly.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL or LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR. In government comprehending ſeveral iſlands, as that of the Leeward Charibbean iſlands, there is commonly appointed, together with the captain-general, or chief governor, a lieutenant-general, who is next in ſucceſſion. He is uſually lieutenant-governor likewiſe of one of the iſlands included within the general government, each of which, in the abſence of the captain-general from that particular iſland, has its affairs adminiſtered by a lieutenant-governor, or the preſident of the council; moſt commonly the latter, as it is not often that the lieutenant-governor is on the ſpot. In Jamaica, it is ſeldom that a lieutenant-governor is appointed during the reſidence on the iſland of a captain-general, there being no eſtabliſhment or proviſion for ſuch an officer holding a dormant commiſſion; who has, therefore, neither power nor profit. He is not, as lieutenant-governor, entitled even to a ſeat in the council. On the reſignation, or abſence on leave, of the captain-general, a lieutenant-governor, if not preſent, is frequently ſent over, who then ſucceeds to the ſupreme command, and receives the full emoluments of the government.

THE COUNCIL. The members of this board are ſeverally appointed by royal mandamus, directed to the governor, and counterſigned by the ſecretary of ſtate, and the names of the ſeveral members for the time being are inſerted in the governor's inſtructions. In Jamaica their full complement is twelve; in ſome of the ſmaller iſlands ten; and in caſe of as many vacancies by death, abſence, or ſuſpenſion, as reduce the board under ſeven, the governor, or commander-in-chief, is empowered to fill up to that number, but no farther. Their privileges, powers, and offices, are theſe:

Firſt, they are, by courteſy, ſtiled *honourable*; they take precedency next to the commander-in-chief, and, on the death or abſence of the governor, lieutenant-general, and lieutenant-governor, the eldeſt member of the council ſucceeds to the government, under the title of *Preſident*.

Secondly, they are a council of ſtate, the governor or commander-in-chief preſiding in perſon, to whom they ſtand in the ſame relation as the privy council in Great Britain does to the ſovereign.

Thirdly, The members are named, in every commiſſion of the peace, as juſtices, throughout the colony to which they belong.

Fourthly, The council, together with the commander-in-chief, ſit as judges in the court of error, or court of appeal in civil cauſes from the courts of record; and in ſome of the iſlands, two or more of the members ſit with the governor in the court of chancery, as aſſiſtant commiſſioners of the great ſeal; appeals from chancery therefore lie not before them, but are by the King's order, avoked before His Majeſty himſelf in council.

Fifthly, the council is a conſtituent part of the legiſlature; their conſent being neceſſary in the enacting of laws. In this capacity of legiſlators, they ſit as the upper houſe, and in moſt of the colonies, diſtinct from the governor; claim privilege of parliament, order the attendance of perſons, and the productions of papers and records, and commit for contempts; enter proteſts on their journals after the manner of the houſe of peers, and have their chaplain, clerk, uſher of the black rod, and other officers.

The Assembly. Colonial aſſemblies have conſtantly copied, and are required to copy, as nearly as circumſtances will permit, the example of the parliament of Great Britain. The freeholders are aſſembled in each town, or pariſh reſpectively, by the King's writ; their ſuffrages are taken by an officer of the crown, and the perſons elected are afterwards commanded, by royal proclamation, to meet together, at a certain time and place in the proclamation named, to frame ſtatutes and ordinances for the public ſafety. — When met, the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy are adminiſtered, and a ſpeaker being choſen and approved, the ſeſſion opens by a ſpeech from the King's repreſentative. The aſſembly then proceed, as a grand provincial inqueſt, to hear grievances, and to correct ſuch public abuſes as are not cogniſable before inferior tribunals. They commit for contempts; and the courts of law have refuſed, after ſolemn argument, to diſcharge perſons committed by the ſpeaker's warrant. — They examine and control the accounts of the public treaſurer; they vote ſuch ſupplies, lay ſuch taxes, and frame ſuch laws, ſtatutes and ordinances, as the exigencies of the province or colony require. — Jointly with the governor and council, they exerciſe the higheſt acts of legiſlation; for their penal laws, which the judges are

ſworn to execute, extend even to life; many perſons having ſuffered death under laws paſſed in the colonies, even before they had received the royal aſſent. On the whole, ſubject to the reſtriction that their trade-laws are not to be repugnant to thoſe of Great Britain, there are no concerns of a local and provincial nature, to which the authority of the colonial enactments does not extend.

Having thus noticed the general characteriſtics of all theſe ſettlements, it is purpoſed to give ſome account of each.

THE BAHAMAS.

The Bahama Iſlands lie in a diagonal line, running ſouth-eaſt and north-weſt, nearly ſeven hundred miles in extent, between the ſeventy-firſt and eighty-firſt degrees of weſt longitude, and the twenty-firſt and twenty-eighth degrees of north latitude. From the names given by the aborigines to the two largeſt iſlands, ſituated at the north-weſtern extremity of the range, they have been ſometimes called the *Lucayas*, or more generally, *Bahamas*. The greater iſlands, or rather groups of iſlands, may be eſteemed fourteen in number. The ſmaller, it has been computed, amount to at leaſt ſeven hundred.

Theſe iſlands in their preſent ſtate merit little deſcription. Amid a cluſter of quays, and the rocks called the Gallipagos Iſlands, are ſituated the *Great Bahama* and *Lucaya*, both uninhabited, and without ſign of cultivation. *Eleuthera* was known at a very early period in Europe, from the medicinal virtue of a ſhrub which it produces, of the name of eleuthera, or ilathera (Croton). The bark of this ſhrub, poſſeſſing leſs aſtringency, has been ſometimes preferred, in the practice of phyſic, to the Peruvian bark; but the iſland is principally valued for the proviſions and fruit, eſpecially pines, which it yields, and from whence the market of Providence is ſupplied. It was cultivated at a very early period, and conſiderable ſettlements were formed there, under the government of Captain Woodes Rogers. Many of the proprietors reſide on the adjacent territory, called *Harbour Iſland*, originally peopled by ſeafaring people, who were firſt attracted by the convenience of a harbour, and in proceſs of time, probably when tired of the ſea, beſtowed their labour on gardens and proviſion grounds; and as the ſoil on Harbour Iſland was unproductive, they formed their principal plantations on Eleuthera. *Andros*, although rocky, and poſſeſſing a light ſoil, has invited ſome cultivation. Its mahogany is ſpoken of as comparatively large, and it is ſaid to abound with a ſpecies of pitch pine.

NEW PROVIDENCE. This iſland is entitled to attention as the moſt cultivated and populous of the Bahamas, and as the ſeat of government. On the 17th October, 1492, it was viſited by Columbus, and named *Fernandina*, in honour of Ferdinand King of Spain; but ſo much was the public attention engroſſed by the valuable countries to which he afterward directed his courſe, that the diſcovery of the iſland was attributed to an Engliſh navigator, (Captain William Sayle,) driven there in 1667, on his paſſage to Carolina. From the fortunate preſervation which, on that or a ſubſequent voyage, he experienced in this iſland from ſhipwreck, Captain Sayle called it Providence. As the ſame name, however, had been given to a diſtrict of country on the coaſt of our northern ſettlements in America, this, as the lateſt diſcovery, was probably diſtinguiſhed by the deſcription of New Providence. From the repreſentation which this gentleman made, on his return home, to the proprietors of Carolina, (of which colony he was afterwards governor,) Providence, with the other Bahama iſlands, was granted by Charles II. to the Duke of Albemarle, and five other proprietary lords. Shortly after its location, ſome emigrants from England and the other colonies in America, having ſettled, or propoſing to form a ſettlement on the iſland, in 1672, Mr. Collingworth was ſent out to ſuperintend the infant colony at Naſſau. Some miſunderſtanding having taken place, he was ſeized by the licentious inhabitants (probably for the moſt part pirates), and tranſported to Jamaica. Although the proprietary lords, ſome years afterward, ſent out a ſucceſſor to Mr. Collingworth, they do not appear to have made any energetic efforts to repreſs ſuch audacities; but the Spaniards, who were moſt intereſted to inflict an exemplary vengeance on a colony which, in the neighbourhood of one of their valuable poſſeſſions, committed inceſſant depredations on its commerce, made frequent and ineffectual attempts to exterminate the ſettlement at Naſſau. From this motive, combined with the jealouſy they always entertained of the colonization of any other nation, in a part of the globe which they conſidered excluſively as their own, in one of their deſcents on Naſſau, it is ſaid, they actually *roaſted* Mr. Clarke, the governor. But the pirates, whoſe loſs of property was eaſily replaced, by the means by which it was originally acquired, were no ſooner diſperſed than they returned to their favourite aſylum; and the only permanent effect produced by theſe attacks was a more malignant hatred againſt their invaders, cheriſhed even to this day. In a courſe of years, ſeveral governors were ſucceſſively appointed; but their government being a mixture of legitimate authority, and licentious piracy, the iſland was, in 1708, completely

pletely depopulated by the Spaniards and French, although before that period it had been reckoned to contain 1000 inhabitants. It became afterwards celebrated as a rendezvous of the famous pirate, ſo well known by the name of Black Beard. After the fall of this ruffian, a regular government was eſtabliſhed, under which it has continued to the preſent period, except during ſhort terms of capture by enemies.

The harbour of New Providence, to which the early ſettlement and preſent conſequence of this iſland may be attributed, is formed by a long key or ſlip of land running in front of the town of Naſſau, nearly parallel with its length, from eaſt-ſouth-eaſt to weſt-north-weſt. The body of the town is on the ſouthern ſide of the harbour, and extends on a pretty ſteep acclivity to the ſummit of a ridge, which runs for the moſt part in the direction of the general line of the coaſt. The view of the town, comprehending on the weſt a large fortreſs (on the ſame eminence), and the barracks for the troops, overlooking the ſea, is extremely ſtriking from the mouth of the harbour. The ſtreets are regularly diſpoſed, and in ſome parts remarkable for their unparalleled ſmoothneſs, being nothing more than the ſolid ſurface of a ſtone quarry, which has afforded abundant materials for building on the ſpot. A conſiderable ſquare, or quadrangle, ſuſceptible of much embelliſhment, occupies a large ſpace in the weſtern diviſion of the town. The north ſide of this open ſpace, near the water, is bounded by paliſadoes, incloſing the works of a neglected fortreſs, from whence the town is named. The preſent reſidence of the governor of the Bahamas is at ſome diſtance from this ſquare, and toward the upper end of one of the ſtreets, has a pleaſing command of view, which includes the lower part of the town, Hog Iſland, the harbour intervening, and the more diſtant ſea. The governor's dwelling was provided for him at the expenſe of the colonial government; but the aſſembly voted 10,000*l.* for the erection of a new one. The opulence of this ſmall iſland is derived from other ſources than the ſoil; for it can ſcarcely boaſt of a ſingle cotton plantation, and remains in a great meaſure clothed in its native wood. Many of the principal planters, however, on the other iſlands, who are concerned in the adminiſtration of the government, or in trade, have fixed their reſidence at Naſſau. It is alſo the principal military and naval ſtation in the Bahamas.

The town of Naſſau is divided into two pariſhes, each of which is provided with a church and rector, liberally ſupported by public contribution, or the eleemoſynary bounty of the Engliſh ſociety for propagating the goſpel.

The principal trade is with England, the ſouthern iſlands in

the Weſt Indies, and the United States of America, from whence the iſland derives continual ſupplies of live ſtock and proviſions.

The conſtitution of the Bahamas is upon the model of all our colonial governments in the Weſt Indies. The governor's annual income is eſtimated at ſomething leſs than 3000*l.* ſterling, including perquiſites. The council conſiſts of twelve members, and the aſſembly of twenty-ſix, who are returned by the ſeveral iſlands in this government, comprehended in diſtricts. The town of Naſſau, and the eaſtern and weſtern diſtricts of New Providence, are repreſented by eight, Harbour Iſland by three, Eleuthera three, Abaco three, St. Salvador one, Long Iſland two, Exuma three, Andros two, and Crooked Iſland by one member. The qualification of a repreſentative, generally ſpeaking, is either property of the value of 2000*l.* currency, or ſpecifically 200 acres of cultivated land. In the choice, every free male white inhabitant, twenty-one years of age, reſident twelve months within the government, and having been ſix months a houſeholder or a freeholder, or having paid duties to the amount of 50*l.* in the preceding year, is entitled to a vote.

Beſide the courts in which the governor preſides, there is a ſupreme court exerciſing the functions of the Court of King's Bench; a court of Common Pleas for recovery of debts not exceeding 20*l.*, and a court of Vice Admiralty.

Guanaham, or St. Salvador. This iſland, inſignificant in itſelf, is entitled to particular notice as the firſt land which Columbus diſcovered, the immediate cauſe of his preſervation from the mutiny of his diſcontented crew, and the firſt aſſurance of thoſe extenſive diſcoveries which afterward gave a new world to the knowledge of Europe. On the 11th of October, 1492, that illuſtrious navigator firſt ſtruck foundings to the weſtward of this iſland, and, laying to in the night, obſerved a light on ſhore at the diſtance of two leagues. The next morning he landed in his boat ſomewhere on the eaſtern or the ſouthern coaſt, and rowed on the enſuing day to a harbour, ſuppoſed to be that which at preſent bears the name of *Port Howe.* A ſmall Indian village, conſiſting of ſix houſes, then ſtood near the landing-place, ſurrounded with trees, exhibiting the appearance of gardens. A country-houſe called *Columbia*, in honour of the great navigator, is now ſituated near this ſuppoſed ſpot. On the firſt arrival of the Spaniards, it is ſaid, the unſuſpecting but devoted natives were never ſatisfied with looking at them; they knelt down, lifted up their hands and gave thanks to God, inviting one another to admire the *heavenly men.* Twenty years, however, had ſcarcely elapſed before theſe heavenly men found it convenient to tranſport

port them, by force or artifice, to dig in the mines of Hiſpaniola; a meaſure to which the court of Spain was tempted to give its aſſent, by the plauſible ſuggeſtion that it would be the moſt effectual mode of civiliſing and inſtructing them in the chriſtian religion. Upon this pretence 40,000 ſouls (probably the whole population of the iſlands) were carried to Hiſpaniola. So exalted was the opinion which this ſimple people entertained of their deſtroyers, and ſo ſtrong and univerſal is the perſuaſion of the human mind that a deſtiny awaits it beyond the miſeries and diſappointments of its preſent bounded exiſtence, that many of the Lucayans were induced with cheerfulneſs to abandon their homes, under a perſuaſion that they ſhould meet in a happier country the ſpirits of their deceaſed friends, with whom the Spaniards repreſented themſelves as living in a ſtate of ſociety. As the ſituation of theſe iſlands with reſpect to each other invited a continual intercourſe amongſt the inhabitants, who probably ſubſiſted in a great meaſure on fiſh, it may juſtly be preſumed they were principally devoted to a maritime life. Some of their canoes were large enough to carry between forty and fifty perſons. Indeed many convincing proofs of their intrepidity and expertneſs in the water occurred after their tranſportation to St. Domingo, when, finding the deluſion which had been practiſed to decoy them from their native country, they made every effort to regain it. Some few effected their eſcape, although many were fruſtrated in their deſign; and, after moſt extraordinary, though unavailing efforts, dragged back to the country they ſo much deteſted, to end their days in unmitigated ſlavery. It was the contemplation of ſcenes like theſe that induced the humane Las Caſas to recommend the purchaſe of negroes in Africa, as a more fit mode of Weſt Indian culture than the ſtealing and extermination of theſe unſuſpecting and benevolent aborigines.

The remaining iſlands do not demand deſcription; being recently brought into cultivation, their circumſtances are nearly ſimilar, their proſperity being greater or leſs in proportion to their ſituation, or the ſkill and enterpriſe of the landholders. There are groups of ſmall indeſcribable iſlets, known by the names of the French Keys, the Hogſties, and the Caicos, or Caucus.

The Turk's Islands. Theſe ſmall, and apparently unimportant iſlands, are of ſome conſequence to government, from the quantity of ſalt they produce in natural ponds. The calcareous rock, of which the land is compoſed, lies generally in horizontal layers. From the violent action of the ſea, which has evidently, and perhaps recently, beaten over them, the ſurface every where appears worn, fretted, and broken into

holes, or often deep excavations; hence the ocean water finds a paſſage, and has formed, in many parts of the interior, extenſive *ſalinas*, or ponds. Although the inhabitants of the other iſlands, perhaps, amongſt other cauſes, owing to a more northern poſition, have not hitherto much attended to the great natural advantage of their ſalt-ponds, little doubt ſeems at preſent entertained of their becoming a ſource of conſiderable profit, from the quantity of ſalt produced, and the facility with which it may be obtained. For early in the year, when the power of the ſun begins to increaſe, accompanied with dry weather, the ſalt everywhere in theſe natural ponds begins to chryſtalliſe and ſubſide in ſolid cakes. It remains then only to break the cryſtals and rake the ſalt on ſhore; and by this eaſy mode a ſingle labourer may take from forty to ſixty buſhels of ſalt in a day. The proceſs, however, is facilitated by making ſmall pans, which, as the ſalt is taken out, may be repleniſhed with brine from the pond. The two principal ponds from whence the ſalt is obtained in this cluſter of iſlands, lie at that which is called the *Grand Turk*, and at a ſmaller iſland, called *Salt Key*, on the ſouth ſide of it. The iſland called *Grand Turk*, may be about twelve miles long, and, at a mean, two miles broad from eaſt to weſt. The ſoil, which is ſandy, admits but of little cultivation, and produces only a ſmall quantity of Guinea-corn, an agreeable and nutritious grain, which is univerſally cultivated throughout the Bahamas. The principal pond on the iſland is conſiderably more than a mile in length. There are alſo ſome of leſs note, and particularly one near a harbour on the eaſt-ſide of the *Grand Turk*, from whence ſome ſmall quantity of ſalt is obtained.

The reſident inhabitants are few in number. Before the American war they amounted to about eighteen white heads of families, and forty ſlaves, ſince which period there probably has been little increaſe; but in the early part of the year, when the ſalt begins to make, a number of periodical viſitants, from the *Bermudas*, come over for the purpoſe of raking it. Theſe viſitors are ſaid ſometimes to number nearly two thouſand. The pans which the ſalt-rakers generally lay out are not all of equal dimenſions, but depend on each individual's judgment or experience. They are filled with brine about ſix inches deep, or ſo as to cover a man's ancles, and a moveable machine like the wheel of a water-mill, but turned by a handle, throws the water from the pond into a gutter, from which the pan is conveniently and readily ſupplied. A free port is eſtabliſhed at the Turk's Iſlands, which admits the Americans, their principal cuſtomers, to carry away the ſalt in their own bottoms, ſubject to a duty of two ſhillings and ſixpence Bahama currency,

(eight

(eight ſhillings to the dollar) per ton, payable to the crown. The colonial government has alſo impoſed a further duty on ſalt exported.

The inhabitants of the Bahamas are ſtated by Mr. Colquhoun to be 3600 white perſons, 3300 free perſons of colour, and 10,000 ſlaves.

JAMAICA.

SITUATION AND CLIMATE. Jamaica is ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, about four thouſand miles ſouth-weſt of England. It has Hiſpaniola, at the diſtance of thirty leagues, to the eaſt; Cuba, about the ſame diſtance, to the north; the gulf of Honduras to the weſt; and Carthagena, on the great continent of South America, to the ſouth, diſtant one hundred and forty-five leagues. The centre of Jamaica lies in about 18° 12′ north latitude, and in longitude about 76° 45′ weſt from London The climate is extremely hot, with little variation from January to December; the days and nights are nearly of equal duration, there being little more than two hours' difference between the longeſt days and the ſhorteſt: there is very little twilight, and when it is twelve o'clock at noon in London, it is about ſeven in the morning in Jamaica.

HISTORY. Columbus diſcovered this iſland on the 3d of May 1494; it was taken poſſeſſion of by the Spaniards, who, with their accuſtomed inhumanity, totally exterminated the natives, 60,000 in number. In 1665 the territory was wreſted from theſe butchers by an Engliſh force under the command of Penn and Venables. The protector Oliver Cromwell has been ſeverely cenſured for breach of faith in this capture, but he is vindicated by Mr. Bryan Edwards. At all events, the ſtate of the iſland was ſoon changed for the better. The ſloth and penury of the Spaniſh planters, when the Engliſh landed, were extreme. Of the many valuable commodities which Jamaica has ſince produced in ſo great abundance, ſome were altogether unknown, and of the reſt the inhabitants cultivated no more than were ſufficient for their own expenditure. Their principal export, beſides cocoa, conſiſted of hog's-lard and hides. The ſale of theſe articles, and ſupplying the few ſhips that touched at their ports with proviſions, in barter for European manufactures, conſtituted the whole of their commerce; a commerce which the ſavages of Madagaſcar conduct with equal ability and ſucceſs. They poſſeſſed nothing of the elegancies of life, nor were they even acquainted with many of thoſe qualifications which, in civiliſed ſtates, are conſidered as neceſſary to comfort

fort and convenience. They were neither poliſhed by ſocial intercourſe nor improved by education; but paſſed their days in gloomy languor, enfeebled by ſloth and depreſſed by poverty. Having at the ſame time little or no connection with Europe, and no means of ſending their children thither for education, they had been for many years in a ſtate of progreſſive degeneracy, and would probably in a ſhort time have expiated the guilt of their anceſtors, by falling victims themſelves to the vengeance of their ſlaves. The iſland has ever ſince remained in the hands of the Engliſh, although ſeveral attempts have been made to recapture it, and expeditions have even been fitted out by France and Spain almoſt on purpoſe.

Description. Jamaica is one hundred and fifty miles in length; and on a medium of three meaſurements at different places, about forty miles in breadth, affording, if allowance is made for the mountains, a ſurface of 4,080,000 acres. Of theſe in 1789, no more than 1,907,589 had been located, or taken up, by grants from the crown, and even of them little more than one million were in cultivation. There were 710 ſugar eſtates, and 400 breeding farms, or, as they are called, pens. Nor is it ſuppoſed, that of the portion which is uncultivated above one-fourth could ever be brought into uſe, it being impracticable and inacceſſible. The land, however, exhibits no ſign of barrenneſs, being covered with extenſive woods, containing excellent timbers, ſome parts of which are of prodigious growth and ſolidity; ſuch as the lignumvitæ, dog wood, iron wood, pigeon wood, green heart, braziletto and bulley trees; moſt of which ſink in water, and are of a compactneſs and impenetrability inconceivable by European workmen. Some of theſe are neceſſary in mill-work, and would be highly valuable in the Windward Iſlands. Of ſofter kinds, for boards and ſhingles, the ſpecies are innumerable; and there are many beautiful varieties adapted for cabinet-work; among others, the bread-nut, the wild lemon, and the well-known mahogany.

Rivers and Springs. As the country is thus abundantly wooded, ſo on the whole, it may be ſaid to be well watered. There are reckoned, throughout its extent, above one hundred rivers, which take their riſe in the mountains, and run, commonly with great rapidity, to the ſea, on both ſides of the iſland. None of them are deep enough to be navigated by marine veſſels. Black River in St. Elizabeth, flowing chiefly through a level country, is the deepeſt and gentleſt, and admits flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about thirty miles.

Of the ſprings, which very generally abound, even in the higheſt mountains, ſome are medicinal, and are ſaid to be highly efficacious in diſorders peculiar to the climate. The moſt remarkable

markable of theſe is found in the eaſtern pariſh of St. Thomas, and the fame of it has created a village in its neighbourhood, which is called Bath. The water flows out of a rocky mountain, about a mile diſtant, and is too hot to admit a hand being held underneath. A thermometer on Fahrenheit's ſcale immerſed in this water, riſes to 123°. It is ſulphureous, and has been uſed with great advantage in that dreadful diſeaſe of the climate called the dry-belly-ache. There are other ſprings, both ſulphureous and chalybeate, in different parts of the country; of which, however, the properties are little known to the inhabitants in general.

Productions. It is not intended to enumerate among the productions of any iſland thoſe which are already mentioned as common to all the Weſt Indies; but only ſuch growths as contribute to the particular gratification of the inhabitants of each. The ſeveral kinds of kitchen-garden produce, as edible roots and pulſe, which are known in Europe, thrive alſo in the mountains of this iſland; and the markets of Kingſton and Spaniſh Town are ſupplied with cabbages, lettuce, carrots, turnips, parſnips, artichokes, kidney-beans, green peas, aſparagus, and various ſorts of European herbs, in the utmoſt abundance. Some of them (as the firſt three) are ſaid to be of ſuperior flavour to the ſame kind produced in England. Among the native growths, the chocho, ochra, Lima-bean, and Indian-kale, are ſaid to be more agreeable than any of the eſculent vegetables of Europe. The other indigenous productions of this claſs are plantains, bananas, yams of ſeveral varieties, calalue (a ſpecies of ſpinnage), eddoes, caſſavi, and ſweet potatoes. A mixture of theſe, ſtewed with ſalted fiſh, or ſalted meat of any kind, and highly ſeaſoned with Cayenne-pepper, is a favourite olio among the negroes. For bread, an unripe roaſted plantain is an excellent ſubſtitute, and univerſally preferred to it by the negroes and moſt of the native whites. To the fruits already mentioned, the addition would be unimportant.

Topography. The iſland is divided into three counties, which are named Middleſex, Surry, and Cornwall.

Middlesex is compoſed of eight pariſhes, one town, and thirteen villages. The town is that of *St. Jago-de-la-Vega*, or *Spaniſh Town*, the capital of the iſland. Moſt of the villages of this and the other counties are hamlets of no great account, ſituated at the different harbours and ſhipping places, and ſupported by the traffic carried on there. *St. Jago-de-la-Vega* is ſituated on the banks of the river Cobre, about ſix miles from the ſea, and contains between five and ſix hundred houſes, and about five thouſand inhabitants, including free people of colour.

colour. It is the reſidence of the Governor or Commander in Chief, who is accommodated with a ſuperb palace; and it is here that the legiſlature is convened, and the Court of Chancery and the Supreme Court of Judicature are held.

SURRY contains ſeven pariſhes, two towns, and eight villages. The towns are thoſe of *Kingston* and *Port Royal*: the former of which is ſituated on the north ſide of a beautiful harbour, and was founded in 1693, when repeated deſolations by earthquake and fire had driven the inhabitants from Port Royal. It contains upward of one thouſand ſix hundred houſes, beſides negro-huts and warehouſes, and is a place of great trade and opulence. Many of the houſes in the upper part of the town are extremely magnificent; and the markets for butchers' meat, turtle, fiſh, poultry, fruits and vegetables, are inferior to none. *Port Royal*, once a place of the greateſt wealth and importance in the Weſt Indies, is now reduced, by repeated calamities, to three ſtreets, a few lanes, and about two hundred houſes. It contains, however, the royal navy yard, for heaving down and refitting the King's ſhips, the navy hoſpital, and barracks for a regiment of ſoldiers. The fortifications are kept in excellent order, and are of conſiderable ſtrength.

CORNWALL contains five pariſhes, three towns, and ſix villages. The towns are *Savanna-la-Mar* on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and Montego Bay and Falmouth on the north. The former was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by a dreadful hurricane and inundation of the ſea in 1780. It is now partly rebuilt. *Montego Bay* is a flouriſhing and opulent town; and *Falmouth*, or, (as it is more commonly called) *The Point*, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of Martha Brae harbour, and includes the adjoining villages of Martha Brae and the Rock.

Each pariſh (or precinct conſiſting of an union of two or more pariſhes) is governed by a chief magiſtrate, ſtyled *Cuſtos Rotulorum*, and a body of juſtices unlimited by law as to number, by whom ſeſſions of the peace are held every three months, and courts of common pleas to try actions ariſing within the pariſh or precinct, to an amount not exceeding twenty pounds. In matters of debt not exceeding forty ſhillings, a ſingle juſtice is authoriſed to determine.

CHURCHES. The whole twenty pariſhes contain eighteen churches and chapels, and each pariſh is provided with a rector and other church officers. The preſentation to the rectors' livings reſts with the Governor or Commander in Chief; ſtipends not exceeding 300*l.* per annum are paid in lieu of tithes, by the church-wardens of the ſeveral pariſhes, from the amount of taxes levied by the veſtries on the inhabitants. Each pariſh builds and repairs a parſonage-houſe, or allows the rector

fifty

fifty pounds per annum in lieu of one: beſides which, many of the livings have glebe lands, of conſiderable value, annexed to them, as the pariſh of St. Andrew, which altogether are valued at 1000*l.* ſterling per annum. The Biſhop of London is ſaid to claim this iſland as part of his dioceſe; but his juriſdiction is renounced and barred by the laws of the country; and the Governor or Commander in Chief, as ſupreme head of the provincial church, not only inducts into the ſeveral rectories, on the requiſite teſtimonials being produced that the candidate has been admitted into prieſt's orders, according to the canons of the church of England, but he is likewiſe veſted with the power of ſuſpending a clergyman of lewd and diſorderly life *ab officio*, upon application from his pariſhioners. A ſuſpenſion *ab officio* is, in fact, a ſuſpenſion *a beneficio*, no miniſter being entitled to his ſtipend for any longer time than he ſhall actually officiate, unleſs prevented by ſickneſs.

VESTRIES. The veſtries are compoſed of the cuſtos, and two other magiſtrates, the rector, and ten veſtrymen; the latter are elected annually by the freeholders. Beſide their power of aſſeſſing and appropriating taxes, they appoint way-wardens, and allot labourers for the repair of the public highways. They likewiſe nominate proper perſons, who are called collecting conſtables, for the collection both of the public and parochial taxes.

COURTS. The Supreme Court of Judicature for the whole iſland (commonly called the Grand Court, as poſſeſſing ſimilar juriſdiction in this country, to that of the ſeveral courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer in Great Britain) is held in the town of St. Jago-de-la-Vega, on the laſt Tueſday of each of the months of February, May, Auguſt, and November, in every year. In this court the Chief Juſtice of the iſland preſides, whoſe ſalary is only 120*l.*; but the perquiſites ariſing from office make it worth about three thouſand pounds per annum. The aſſiſtant judges are gentlemen of the iſland, commonly planters, who receive no reward for their attendance. Three judges muſt be preſent to conſtitute a court; and each term is limited in duration to three weeks. From this court, if the matter in diſpute in a civil action be for a ſum of 300*l.* ſterling, or upwards, an appeal lies to the governor and council, as a court of error; if ſentence of death be paſſed for felony, the appeal is to the governor alone.

Aſſize Courts, alſo, are held every three months, in Kingſton for the county of Surry, and Savannah-la-Mar for the county of Cornwall. The Surry court begins the laſt Tueſday in January, April, July, and October. The Cornwall court begins the laſt Tueſday in March, June, September, and December; each

each aſſize court is limited to a fortnight in duration. Thus have the inhabitants law courts every month of the year, beſides the Courts of Chancery, Ordinary, Admiralty, and the ſeveral pariſh courts. The judges of the Aſſize Court act without ſalary or reward, as well as the aſſiſtant judges of the Supreme Court, are conſidered as of one and the ſame court, and have an equal right in point of priority with thoſe obtained in the grand court.

The Governor, or Commander in Chief, is Chancellor by his office, and preſides ſolely in that high department, which is adminiſtered with great form and ſolemnity. He is alſo the ſole ordinary for the probate of wills and granting letters of adminiſtration. From the firſt of theſe offices he derives extenſive authority, and from the latter conſiderable emolument.

As appendages of the Supreme Court, the ſeveral great offices, as the office of *enrolments*, or *ſecretary of the iſland*, provoſt-marſhal-general, clerk of the court, or prothonotary and cuſtos brevium, are held and ſituated in Spaniſh Town. The firſt is an office of record, in which the laws paſſed by the legiſlature are preſerved, and copies of them entered into fair volumes. In this office all deeds, wills, ſales, and patents, muſt be regiſtered. It is likewiſe required, that all perſons (after ſix weeks' reſidence) intending to depart the iſland, do affix their names in this office twenty-one days before they are entitled to receive a ticket, or let-paſs, to enable them to leave the country. In order to enforce this regulation, maſters of veſſels are obliged, at the time of entry, to give ſecurity in the ſum of 1,000*l.* not to carry off the iſland any perſon without ſuch ticket or let-paſs. Truſtees, attornies, and guardians of orphans, are required to record annually in this office accounts of the produce of eſtates in their charge; and by a late act, mortgagees in poſſeſſion are obliged to regiſter not only accounts of the crops of each year, but alſo annual accounts current of their receipts and payments. Tranſcripts of deeds from the office, properly certified, are evidence in any court of law, and all deeds muſt be enrolled within three months after date, or they are declared to be void, as againſt any other deed proved and regiſtered within the time limited; but if no ſecond deed is on record, then the ſame are valid, though regiſtered after the three months. The *provoſt-marſhal-general* is an officer of high rank and great authority. The name denotes a military origin, and doubtleſs the office was firſt inſtituted in this iſland before the introduction of civil government, and continued afterwards through neceſſity. It is now held by patent from the crown, which is uſually granted for two lives. The powers and authorities

thorities annexed to this office are various; the acting officer is, in fact, high ſheriff of the whole iſland during his continuance in office, and permitted to nominate deputies under him for every pariſh or precinct.

The office of *Clerk of the Supreme Court* is likewiſe held by patent. Of the other great lucrative offices, the principal are thoſe of the regiſter in chancery, receiver-general, and treaſurer of the iſland, naval officer, and collector of the cuſtoms for the port of Kingſton.

LEGISLATURE. The legiſlature is compoſed of the Captain-general, or Commander in Chief, a council conſiſting of twelve gentlemen, and a houſe of aſſembly, containing forty members, who are elected by the freeholders, viz. three for the ſeveral towns and pariſhes of St. Jago-de-la-Vega, Kingſton, and Port Royal, and two for each of the other pariſhes. The qualification required in the electors, is a freehold of 10*l.* per annum in the pariſh where the election is made; and in the repreſentative, a landed freehold of three hundred pounds per annum, in any part of the iſland, or a perſonal eſtate of three thouſand pounds. In the proceedings of the general aſſembly they copy, as nearly as local circumſtances will admit, the legiſlature of Great Britain; and all their bills (thoſe of a private nature excepted) have the force of laws as ſoon as the governor's aſſent is obtained. The power of rejection however is ſtill reſerved in the crown; but until the royal diſapprobation is ſignified, the laws are valid.

POPULATION AND TRADE. The population of Jamaica, according to Mr. Colquhoun, is 30,000 white perſons, 10,000 free perſons of colour, and 350,000 ſlaves. The colonial ſhipping is 3,503 tons; the eſtimated annual value of all productions of the earth is 11,169,651*l.*; the exports to the United Kingdom amount to 6,885,339; thoſe to other parts to 384,322*l.*; the imports from the United Kingdom are reckoned at 3,685,725*l.* and from other places at 892,207*l.*

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS.

Under this denomination are comprehended Tortola, Virgin Gorda, Anegada, Anguilla, Barbuda, and their reſpective dependencies. Theſe poſſeſſions are of very inferior importance, and the deſcription of them will be brief. They are all compriſed in the government of the Leeward Charibbee Iſlands, and have a Lieutenant-governor, and of late one council and aſſembly for all the iſlands.

Tortola

Tortola was firſt ſettled by Buccaneers in 1666, and being wreſted from them, became the property of Great Britain. Its productions are ſugar and cotton.

Virgin Gorda is of a very irregular ſhape. Its greateſt length from eaſt to weſt is about eighteen miles; it is worſe watered than Tortola, and has fewer inhabitants. A mountain which riſes in its centre is affirmed to contain a ſilver mine.

Anegada is dependant on Virgin Gorda. It is about ſix leagues long, low, and almoſt covered by water at high tides.

Anguilla, or *Snake Iſland*, ſo called from its windings and irregular form, is ten leagues in length, and three in breadth; and the moſt northerly of all the Charibbee Iſlands poſſeſſed by the Britiſh. It was ſettled in 1650. The inhabitants ſubſiſt moſtly by farming, planting Indian corn, and other kinds of huſbandry. The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants ſtrong and vigorous. They export ſugar, rum, and cotton.

Barbuda, or *Barbouthes*, is twenty miles long and twelve broad. The natives apply themſelves chiefly to the breeding of cattle, and furniſhing the neighbouring iſlands with proviſions. It is fertile, abounding in the natural productions of the other Weſt India Iſlands, and has a good road for ſhipping, but no direct trade to Britain. It belongs to the Codrington family.

Among the other Virgin Iſlands are thoſe named Jos Vandykes (by the ſailors Geeſe and Ducks), Guana, Beef and Thatch, Niebar, The Dog, Prickly-pear, Cumana's, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt Iſland, and Peter's Iſland.

The population of theſe iſlands is eſtimated to be 300 white, 400 free perſons of colour, and 10,000 ſlaves.

THE LEEWARD CHARIBBEE ISLANDS.

The iſlands thus denominated, being St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Antigua, and Montſerrat, have formed one diſtinct government ſince the year 1672, under a governor denominated Captain-general of the Leeward Charibbee Iſlands, whoſe reſidence is at Antigua; although he occaſionally viſits the others, in which, in his abſence, where no Lieutenant-governor is appointed, the Preſident of the Council aſſumes his place, and executes nearly all his functions.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S. This iſland, called by its ancient poſſeſſors, the Charribs, *Liamuiga*, or the Fertile Iſland, was diſcovered in November, 1493, by Columbus himſelf, who, pleaſed with its appearance, honoured it with his own Chriſtian name, but it was neither planted nor poſſeſſed by the Spaniards;

it was the earlieſt of the Britiſh territories in the Weſt Indies, and the common mother both of the Engliſh and French ſettlements in the Charribbean Iſlands. The firſt eſtabliſhment was made by Thomas Warner in 1623; the French however having formed a rival ſettlement on other parts of the iſland, it was a ſubject of contention between the two nations, until the peace of Utrecht, when it was ceded wholly to the Engliſh, and the French poſſeſſions publicly ſold for the benefit of government. In 1733, 80,000*l.* of the money was appropriated as a marriage portion with the Princeſs Anne, who was betrothed to the Prince of Orange. Some few of the French planters, indeed, who conſented to take the oaths, were naturalized, and permitted to retain their eſtates. The iſland was taken in 1782 by the French; who brought to the attack 8000 men and 32 ſhips of war, while the force oppoſed to them, and which made a long and vigorous reſiſtance, did not amount to 1000 men, including militia. It was reſtored at the peace in 1783.

Saint Chriſtopher lies in 17° 15′ north latitude, and 63° 17′ weſt longitude; it is about fourteen leagues in circuit, and contains 43,726 acres, of which about 17,000 are appropriated to the growth of ſugar, and 4000 to paſturage. As ſugar is the only commodity of any account that is raiſed, except proviſions, and a little cotton, it is probable that nearly one half the whole iſland is unfit for cultivation. The interior conſiſts, indeed, of rugged precipices and barren mountains. Of theſe the loftieſt is Mount-miſery, (evidently a decayed volcano,) which riſes 3,711 feet perpendicular from the ſea. Nature, however, has made abundant amends for the ſterility of the mountains, by the fertility ſhe has beſtowed upon the plains. The ſoil is eſteemed to be more eminently than any other adapted to the growth of ſugar. There are excellent though not navigable rivers, much reſorted to by the navy for water.

This iſland is divided into nine pariſhes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. *Baſſeterre*, (the preſent capital, as it was formerly that of the French,) containing about 800 houſes, *Sandy-Point*, *Old Road*, and *Deep Bay*. Of theſe, the firſt two are ports of entry, eſtabliſhed by law. The fortifications conſiſt of Charles Fort, and Brimſtone Hill, both near Sandy Point; three batteries at Baſſeterre, one at Fig-tree Bay, another at Palmeto Point, and ſome ſmaller ones.

The council ſhould conſiſt of ten members; the houſe of aſſembly is compoſed of twenty-four repreſentatives, of whom fifteen make a quorum. The requiſite qualification is a freehold of forty acres of land, or a houſe worth forty pounds a year. Of the electors, thequalification is a freehold of ten pounds per annum.

The governor is chancellor, and ſits alone. Attempts have been made to join ſome of the council with him, as in Barbadoes, but without ſucceſs. The juriſdiction of both the King's Bench and Common Pleas centers in one ſuperior court, wherein juſtice is adminiſtered by a chief and four puiſne judges.

There are ſaid to be 1200 white inhabitants, 500 free perſons of colour, and 30,000 ſlaves.

NEVIS. This beautiful little ſpot, divided from St. Chriſtophers only by a ſmall channel, is nothing more than a ſingle mountain, riſing like a cone in an eaſy aſcent from the ſea; the circumference of its baſe not exceeding eight Engliſh leagues. It is believed that Columbus beſtowed on it the appellation of *Nieves*, or the Snows, from its reſemblance to a mountain of the ſame name in Spain; but it is not an improbable conjecture, that in thoſe days a white ſmoke was ſeen to iſſue from the ſummit, which, at a diſtance, had a ſnow-like appearance, and that it derived its name from thence. That the iſland was produced by ſome volcanic exploſion, there can be no doubt, for there is a hollow, or crater, near the ſummit, ſtill viſible, which contains a hot ſpring ſtrongly impregnated with ſulphur; and ſulphur is frequently found in ſubſtance in the neighbouring gullies and cavities of the earth. The country is well watered, and the land in general fertile, a ſmall portion toward the ſummit of the iſland excepted, which anſwers however for the growth of ground proviſions, ſuch as yams and other eſculent vegetables. The ſoil is ſtony; the beſt is a looſe black mould on a clay.

This iſland, ſmall as it is, is divided into five pariſhes. It contains a town called *Charles Town*, the ſeat of government, and a port of entry, and there are two other ſhipping places, called *Indian Caſtle* and *New Caſtle*. The principal fortification is at Charles Town, and is called Charles Fort. The commandant is appointed by the crown, but receives a ſalary from the iſland.

The council is compoſed of the preſident and ſix other members; the houſe of aſſembly conſiſts of fifteen repreſentatives, three for each pariſh. The adminiſtration of common law is under the guidance of a chief, and two aſſiſtant judges, and there is an office for the regiſtry of deeds.

The Engliſh firſt eſtabliſhed themſelves in this iſland in 1628, under the protection and encouragement of Sir Thomas Warner. The population is 500 white perſons, 250 free perſons of colour, and 15,000 ſlaves.

ANTIGUA. This iſland is ſituated about twenty leagues to the eaſtward of St. Chriſtopher's, and was diſcovered at the ſame

time with that iſland by Columbus, who named it from a church in Seville, *Santa Maria de la Antigua.* We are informed by Ferdinand Columbus, that the Indian name was *Jamaica.* It is a ſingular circumſtance that this word, which in the language of the larger iſlands ſignified a country *abounding in ſprings*, ſhould, in the dialect of the Charribs, have been applied to an iſland that does not contain a ſingle ſpring or rivulet of freſh water. This inconvenience, without doubt, as it rendered the country uninhabitable to the Charribs, deterred for ſome time the European adventurers in the neighbouring iſlands from attempting a permanent eſtabliſhment; but nature preſents few obſtacles which avarice or induſtry will not endeavour to ſurmount; the lands being fertile, ciſterns were contrived to hold rain-water, and in 1632, a few Engliſh families took up lands and began to cultivate tobacco. Among theſe was a ſon of Sir Thomas Warner, whoſe deſcendants ſtill poſſeſs very conſiderable property in the iſland; but it was chiefly to the enterprizing ſpirit and extenſive views of Colonel Codrington, of Barbadoes, that Antigua was indebted for its growing proſperity and ſubſequent opulence. This gentleman, removing to this iſland about the year 1674, applied his knowledge in ſugar planting with ſuch effect, that others were animated to follow his example, and benefit by his advice. Mr. Codrington was ſome years afterwards nominated Captain-general, and Commander-in-chief of all the Leeward Charribee iſlands, and making his power ſubſervient to his benevolent purpoſes, was rewarded by witneſſing the flouriſhing condition of all the iſlands under his wiſe and humane government.

Antigua is upward of fifty miles in circumference, and contains 59,838 acres of land, of which about 34,000 are appropriated to the growth of ſugar, and paſturage annexed; its other principal ſtaples are cotton-wool, and tobacco; and they raiſe, in favourable years, great quantities of proviſions. This iſland contains two different kinds of ſoil, the one a black mould on a ſubſtratum of clay which is naturally rich, and when not checked by exceſſive droughts, to which Antigua is particularly ſubject, very productive. The other is a ſtiff clay on a ſubſtratum of marl, much leſs fertile than the former, and abounding with an inirradicable kind of graſs, deſtructive of all other vegetation. On the whole, the iſland is ſaid to have progreſſively decreaſed both in produce and white population.

Antigua is divided into ſix pariſhes and eleven diſtricts, and contains ſix towns and villages; *Saint John's* (the capital), *Parham, Falmouth, Willoughby Bay, Old Road,* and *James Fort*; of which, the firſt two are legal ports of entry. No iſland, in this part of the Weſt Indies, can boaſt of ſo many excellent

harbours. Of theſe, the principal are Engliſh Harbour and Saint John's, both well fortified; and at the former, the Britiſh government has eſtabliſhed a royal navy yard and arſenal, and conveniences for careening ſhips of war.

The military eſtabliſhment generally conſiſts of two regiments of infantry, and two of foot militia. There is likewiſe a ſquadron of dragoons, and a battalion of artillery, both raiſed in the iſland, and the regulars receive additional pay, as in Jamaica.

The Governor or Captain-general of the leeward Charribbee iſlands, although directed by his inſtructions to viſit occaſionally each territory within his government, is generally ſtationary at Antigua, where his court, as Chancellor, is commonly held. In cauſes ariſing in Antigua, he is aſſiſted by the council, and the preſident with a certain number of the council are empowered to determine Chancery cauſes during his abſence, but in caſes ariſing in other iſlands within his government he ſits alone. The other courts are the King's Bench, the Common Pleas, and the Exchequer. The legiſlature is compoſed of the commander-in-chief, a council of twelve members, and an aſſembly of twenty-five.

The population is white 3200, free perſons of colour 1400, ſlaves 36,000.

Montserrat. This little iſland was diſcovered at the ſame time with St. Chriſtopher's, and derived its name from a ſuppoſed reſemblance which Columbus perceived in the face of the country, to a mountain of the ſame name near Barcelona. The name was all that was beſtowed upon it by the Spaniards. Like Nevis, it was firſt planted by a ſmall colony from St. Chriſtopher's, detached in 1632 from the adventurers under Warner. Their ſeparation appears indeed to have been partly occaſioned by local attachments and religious diſſenſions; which rendered the ſituation in St. Chriſtopher's uneaſy to thoſe who were natives of Ireland, and of the Romiſh perſuaſion: the number of the original ſeceders from St. Chriſtopher's was augmented by many of the ſame country and religion. The hiſtory of this little iſland contains nothing remarkable. It was invaded by the French in 1712, and ſuffered ſo much from their depredations, that an article was inſerted in the treaty of Utrecht for appointing commiſſioners to enquire into the damages. It was again invaded, and with moſt of the other iſlands captured by the French in the American war, and reſtored with the reſt.

Montſerrat is about three leagues in length, and as many in breadth, and is ſuppoſed to contain about thirty thouſand acres, of which almoſt two thirds are mountainous or barren. The land

land in cultivation is appropriated nearly as follows. In ſugar, ſix thouſand acres; in cotton, proviſions, and paſturage, two thouſand each.

The council conſiſts of ſix members, and the aſſembly of eight, two from each of the four diſtricts into which it is divided.

The population is 444 whites, 200 free perſons of colour, and 10,000 ſlaves.

DOMINICA.

THE iſland of Dominica was ſo named by Columbus, becauſe it was diſcovered on Sunday (Nov. 3. 1493). In 1759, it fell by conqueſt under the dominion of Great Britain, and was confirmed to the Britiſh crown, by the treaty of Paris, in Feb. 1763. Although Dominica had, until that time, been conſidered as a neutral iſland, many ſubjects of France had eſtabliſhed coffee plantations, and other ſettlements; and it reflects honour on the Britiſh adminiſtration, that theſe people were ſecured in their poſſeſſions, on condition of taking the oaths of allegiance, and paying a ſmall quit-rent. The reſt of the cultivable land was ordered to be ſold by commiſſioners nominated for that purpoſe, and no leſs than 94,346 acres (comprehending one half of the iſland) were accordingly diſpoſed of by auction, in allotments from fifty to one hundred acres, yielding 312,092*l.* ſterling. During the American war the iſland was taken by the French, and the ſufferings of the inhabitants under a five years' tyranny reflect everlaſting diſhonour on the name of the invaders. To the inexpreſſible joy of the people they were reſtored to the bleſſings of Britiſh government in 1783.

Dominica contains 186,436 acres of land, and is divided into ten pariſhes. The town of *Roſeau*, the capital, is ſituated in the pariſh of Saint George, being about ſeven leagues from Prince Rupert's bay. It is on a point of land on the S. W. ſide of the iſland, which forms two bays, Woodbridge's bay to the north, and Charlotte-ville bay to the ſouthward. Roſeau is about half a mile in length, from Charlotte-ville to Roſeau river, and moſtly two furlongs in breadth, but leſs in ſome parts, being of a very irregular figure. It contains not more than five hundred houſes, excluſive of the cottages occupied by the negroes. Before its capture by the French it contained upwards of one thouſand, but long after the ſurrender it was ſet on fire by them, from mixed motives of hatred and rapacity, and 500 houſes burnt.

This iſland is twenty-nine miles in length, and may be reckoned ſixteen in breadth; it contains many high and rugged

mountains interſperſed with fine vallies, and in general they appear to be fertile. Several of the mountains contain volcanoes, which frequently diſcharge vaſt quantities of burning ſulphur. From thoſe mountains alſo iſſue ſprings of hot water, ſome of which are ſuppoſed to poſſeſs great virtue in the cure of tropical diſorders. In ſome places the water is ſaid to be hot enough to coagulate an egg. Dominica has upward of thirty fine rivers, beſide rivulets. The ſoil in the interior country is generally a light-brown-coloured mould, and appears to have been waſhed from the mountains. Toward the ſea coaſt, and in many of the vallies, it is a deep, black, and rich native earth, and ſeems well adapted to the cultivation of all the articles of Weſt Indian produce. The under ſtratum is in ſome parts a yellow or brick clay, in others a ſtiff terrace, but in moſt places very ſtony.

Sugar does not ſucceed in this iſland ſo well as coffee, which is conſidered its ſtaple; it alſo produces cacao, indigo, and ginger. The foreſts afford an inexhauſtible quantity of roſewood, ſo eſteemed by cabinet makers. The fruits and other productions are ſimilar to thoſe in the neighbouring iſlands; but the ſoil being generally thin, is more adapted to the rearing of cotton than ſugar. The beſt eye ſtones that are known are found on the ſhores of this iſland. They have their name from the uſe which is made of them, for clearing the eyes of any dirt. They are ſhaped like a lentil, ſmooth and ſleek, but much ſmaller and of a grey colour.

The iſland is divided into ten pariſhes; St. John, St. Andrew, St. Peter, St. Joſeph, St. Paul, St. David, St. George, St. Patrick, St. Luke, and St. Martin. It is a ſeparate government and a free port.

Its population is 800 whites, 1,500 free perſons of colour, and 24000 ſlaves.

WINDWARD ISLANDS.

In this diviſion each iſland with its dependencies, if any, forms a ſeparate government, and each is therefore to be noticed ſeverally.

SAINT LUCIA.

This iſland received its name from the French, having been diſcovered on the day devoted to that ſaint. The Engliſh effected a ſettlement in 1637; but meeting with various misfortunes

tunes from the natives and the French, it was agreed between the latter and the Engliſh that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. Before the war of 1756 the French had begun to ſettle the iſlands, and, by the treaty of 1763, the other two were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. It was captured in the American war, but reſtored in 1783; retaken in 1794; evacuated in 1795; again captured in 1796; reſtored by the treaty of Amiens; again ſubdued ſoon after the renewal of hoſtilities in 1803, and finally ceded to the Britiſh crown in 1814.

It is twenty-ſeven miles long and twelve broad, lying ſix leagues ſouth of Martinico, and twenty-one north-weſt of Barbadoes. It has ſeveral hills, two of which, being very round and ſteep, are called the Pins' Heads of St. Lucy, and were volcanoes. At the foot of them are fine vallies, with a good ſoil and well watered. In theſe are tall trees, with the timber of which the planters of Martinico and Barbadoes build their houſes and windmills. Here is alſo plenty of cocoa and fuſtic. The air is reckoned healthy, the hills not being ſo high as to intercept the trade-winds, which always fan it from the eaſt, by which means the heat of the climate is moderated and rendered agreeable. In St. Lucia are ſeveral commodious bays and harbours, with good anchorage, particularly the little Carenage; one of the principal inducements for the French to prefer it to the other neutral iſlands. This port has ſeveral noted advantages; there is every where ſufficient depth, and the quality of the bottom is excellent. Nature has formed three careening-places which do not want a key, and require nothing but a capſtern to turn the keel above ground. Thirty ſhips of the line might lie there ſheltered from the hurricanes without being moored. For the other harbours the winds are always good to go out with, and the largeſt ſquadron might be in the offing in leſs than an hour. There are nine pariſhes in the iſland; eight to the leeward, and only one to the windward. The preference to the leeward part of the iſland does not proceed from the ſuperiority of the ſoil, but from the greater or leſs conveniency in ſending out or receiving ſhips. A high-road is made round the iſland, and two others, which croſs it from eaſt to weſt, afford ample facilities to carry the commodities of the plantations to the barcaderes, or landing-places.

The population is, whites 500, free perſons of colour 350, ſlaves 24,000.

BARBADOES.

THIS iſland was probably diſcovered by the Portugueſe in their voyages from Brazil, and from them received its name. It was found without occupants or claimants. The Charribs, for reaſons unknown, had deſerted it, and the Portugueſe, ſatisfied with the ſplendid regions they had acquired on the continent, ſeem to have conſidered it of little value. Having furniſhed it with a breed of ſwine for the benefit of ſuch of their countrymen as might navigate the ſame tract, they left the iſland in all other reſpects as they found it. Of the Engliſh, the firſt who are known to have landed were the crew of a ſhip called the Olive Bloſſom, bound from London to Surinam, in 1605; they took poſſeſſion of the country by fixing up a croſs on the ſpot where *James Town* was afterward built, inſcribed, "James, King of England and this Iſland;" but they began no ſettlement, nor made any conſiderable ſtay. Some years after this an Engliſh ſhip, returning from Brazil, was driven by ſtreſs of weather into this iſland, and finding refreſhments, the maſter and ſeamen, on their arrival in England, made ſo favourable a report of the beauty and fertility of the country, that Lord Ley (afterwards Earl of Marlborough and Lord High Treaſurer) obtained from James the Firſt a grant of the iſland to himſelf and his heirs in perpetuity. From this period a regular colonization began, and, although the intereſts of the iſland were greatly injured by abſurd grants and arbitrary revocations of them, ſtill it advanced in population and proſperity, the emigrants, during the unhappy rebellion in the ſeventeenth century, amounting, as it is ſaid, to 20,000 perſons. After the reſtoration, Charles II. acknowledged the zeal and loyalty of theſe gentlemen by creating thirteen of them baronets; but, at the ſame time, the claims of patentees in former reigns, and their aſſigns and leſſees, occaſioned conſiderable diſputes. The heirs of the Earls of Marlborough and Carliſle, Lord Willoughby of Parham, and ſome creditors of the Earl of Carliſle, all advanced repugnant claims, while the planters contended that they were ſubjects of the king alone, offered at their own coſt to void the patents which had been illegally granted, and were alſo forfeited for non-uſer, and gave hints of their willingneſs to furniſh a revenue to the crown. To ſatisfy the ſeveral claimants, and ſecure a perpetual income, was a work of difficulty, and its accompliſhment ſeems to have been the ſole aim of the king's miniſters, by whom, after a tedious but partial inveſtigation, (conſidering the colony as wholly at the king's

king's mercy,) it was finally ordered, that the Lord Willoughby ſhould immediately repair to his government, and inſiſt on the grant and eſtabliſhment by the aſſembly of a permanent and irrevocable duty of *four and a half per cent.*, to be paid in ſpecie, on all dead commodities, the growth of the iſland, ſhipped to any port of the world; the money ariſing therefrom to be applied as follows: firſt, toward an honourable and immediate proviſion for the Earl of Kinnoul, who was to ſurrender the Carliſle patent to the crown; ſecondly, toward ſatisfaction and full diſcharge of the Earl of Marlborough's annuity; thirdly, it was ſtipulated that the ſurplus ſhould be divided equally between the creditors of the Earl of Carliſle and the Lord Willoughby, during the term yet unexpired of His Lordſhip's leaſe. On the expiration of this term the remainder, after providing 1200*l.* *per annum* for the king's governor for the time being, was ordered to be paid among the ſaid creditors, till their demands were fully ſatisfied and diſcharged; and fourthly, on the extinction of thoſe ſeveral incumbrances, the whole revenue, ſubject to the charge of 1200*l.* per annum to the governor, was to be at the diſpoſal of the crown. This arrangement, although neither ſatisfactory nor juſt toward the planters, was finally acquieſced in, and became the foundation of the four and a half per cent. duty generally paid throughout the Weſt Indies.

The loyalty of theſe iſlands gave ſuch offence to Cromwell, that, after a powerful ſquadron under Ayſcue had with great difficulty reduced them to a capitulation in 1651, the Protector determined immediately to enforce a ſcheme, projected a ſhort time before, of altering the whole ſyſtem of the Barbadian commerce, by prohibiting, by an act of the commonwealth, all foreign ſhipping from trading with the Engliſh plantations, and not permitting any goods to be imported into England or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in ſhips of that European nation of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth and manufacture. Thus aroſe the famous Navigation Act of this kingdom; for, immediately after the reſtoration, its proviſions were adopted by Charles the Second, with this addition, that the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners ſhould alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

Barbadoes is ſituated in 13° 10′ north latitude, and in longitude 59° weſt from London. It is about twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth, and contains 106,470 acres of land, moſt of which is under cultivation. The ſoil in the lowlands is black, ſomewhat reddiſh in the ſhallow parts; on the hills, of a chalky marl, and near the ſea generally ſandy. Of this variety of ſoil the black mould is beſt ſuited for the cultivation

vation of the cane, and, with the aid of manure, has given as great returns of ſugar in favourable ſeaſons as any in the Weſt Indies, the prime lands of St. Kitt's excepted. That the ſoil of this iſland is, to a great degree, naturally fertile, muſt be admitted, if credit is given to the accounts which are tranſmitted of its ancient population and opulence. We are aſſured that, about the year 1670, Barbadoes could boaſt of 50,000 white, and upwards of one hundred thouſand black inhabitants, whoſe labours, it is ſaid, gave employment to ſixty thouſand tons of ſhipping. This account is probably much exaggerated. It cannot, however, be doubted that the inhabitants of this iſland have decreaſed with a rapidity ſeldom known in any other country. By returns of the number of its whites in 1724, and of its negroes in 1753, the former conſiſted of 18,295; the latter of 69,870. In 1786 the numbers were, 16,167 whites, 838 free people of colour, and 62,115 negroes. It appears, too, that the annual produce of this iſland (particularly ſugar) has decreaſed in a much greater proportion than in any other of the colonies. That the dreadful ſucceſſion of hurricanes, with which it has pleaſed the Almighty to viſit this and the other iſlands, has contributed to this defalcation, cannot be doubted. The capital of this iſland was ſcarcely riſen from the aſhes to which it had been reduced by two dreadful fires, when it was torn from its foundations, and the whole country made a ſcene of deſolation, by the ſtorm of the 10th of October 1780, in which no leſs than four thouſand three hundred and twenty-ſix of the inhabitants (blacks and whites) miſerably periſhed, and the damage to the country was computed at 1,320,564*l.* 15*s.* ſterling. It might have been preſumed, however, from the favourable ſeaſons which were afterward experienced, that the proſpect was at length beginning to brighten; but although, ſince the failure of their ſugar plantations, the inhabitants have found ſome reſource in the cultivation of cotton, it does not ſeem probable that any encouragement is capable of reſtoring this iſland to its ancient ſplendour and opulence.

Barbadoes is divided into five diſtricts, and eleven pariſhes; and contains four towns, Bridgetown, Oſtins or Charles Town, St. James's (formerly called the Hole), and Speight's Town. *Bridgetown*, the capital, before it was deſtroyed by the fires of 1766, conſiſted of about fifteen hundred houſes, which were moſtly built of brick; and it is ſtill the ſeat of government, and may be called the chief reſidence of the governor, who is provided with a country villa called Pilgrims, ſituated within a mile of it: his ſalary was raiſed by Queen Anne from twelve hundred to two thouſand pounds per annum, the whole

whole of which is paid out of the exchequer, and charged to the account of the four and a half per cent. duty. The council is compoſed of twelve members, and the aſſembly of twenty-two. The governor is ſole chancellor. The courts of grand ſeſſions, common pleas, and exchequer, are diſtinct from each other.

The preſent population is ſaid to be, whites 15,000, free perſons of colour 3000, and ſlaves 59,506.

SAINT VINCENT'S.

The Spaniards beſtowed the name of St. Vincent upon ths iſland, becauſe they diſcovered it on the 22d of January, which in the calendar is dedicated to that ſaint; but it does not appear that they were ever, properly ſpeaking, in poſſeſſion of it: the Indians being very numerous, on account of its being the rendezvous of their expeditions to the continent. Unfortunately, however, neither their numbers, nor the natural ſtrength of the country, exempted them from hoſtility. What avarice had in vain attempted, accident accompliſhed, by procuring a race of people, whom, though at firſt beheld by the native Charribs with contempt or pity, they have ſince found formidable rivals and mercileſs conquerors. Theſe people have been long diſtinguiſhed, however improperly, by the name of *Black* Charribs. Toward the end of the ſeventeenth century, a ſhip from Guinea, with a large cargo of ſlaves, was either wrecked or run on ſhore at St. Vincent's, into the woods and mountains of which great numbers of the negroes eſcaped. Here, whether willingly or unwillingly is a little uncertain, the Indians ſuffered them to remain, and partly by the acceſſion of runaway ſlaves from Barbadoes, partly by the children they had by the Indian women, they became very numerous; ſo that early in the eighteenth century they conſtrained the Indians to retire into the north-weſt part of the iſland. The French, in hopes of gaining the iſland, were induced in 1719 to ſend forces to aid the red Charribs; but theſe people rendering no aſſiſtance to their allies, the blacks compelled them to retire with great loſs. Another attempt to gain poſſeſſion was made by the Engliſh in 1723, but with no better ſucceſs. For the next forty years, the country became a theatre of ſavage hoſtilities between the Negroes and the red Charribs, in which the latter were nearly extirpated; but the victors adopted moſt of the Charribean manners and cuſtoms.

By

By the peace of 1763, the iſland became veſted in Great Britain; and the firſt meaſure of government was to diſpoſe of a great portion of the land at a very eaſy rate. The Charribs, inſtigated by the French, gave ſome trouble, but were ſubdued, and gave up part of the territory they claimed; but in 1779, the iſland being invaded by the French, the fear of theſe internal enemies joined with other cauſes in producing an early ſurrender. It was reſtored in 1783, and the poſſeſſion of it has ſince been uninterrupted.

The government of St. Vincent has attached to it eight ſmall iſlands, called *Union*, containing 2150 acres; *Bequia*, 3700; *Canouane*, 1777; *Muſtique*, 1200; beſides the ſmaller iſlands of *Petit St. Vincent*, *Petit Martinique*, *Maillereau*, and *Balleſeau*, each of which produces ſome cotton. It is ſomewhat remarkable, that this iſland has never in any injurious degree been viſited by thoſe violent tornadoes or hurricanes, which have ſo frequently devaſtated the neighbouring iſlands, and ſo often been fatal to Jamaica.

St. Vincent's contains about 84,000 acres, which are every where well watered, but the country is generally mountainous and rugged; the intermediate vallies, however, are fertile in a high degree, the ſoil conſiſting chiefly of a fine mould, compoſed of ſand and clay, well adapted for ſugar. The extent of country at preſent poſſeſſed by Britiſh ſubjects is 23,605 acres, and about as much is ſuppoſed to be held by the Charribs. All the remainder is thought to be incapable of cultivation or improvement.

The iſland, or rather the Britiſh territory within it, is divided into five pariſhes, of which only one was provided with a church. There is one town called *Kingſton*, the ſeat of government, and three villages that bear the name of towns, but are inconſiderable hamlets.

The council conſiſts of twelve members, the aſſembly of ſeventeen. The governor's ſalary is two thouſand pounds ſterling; one half of which is raiſed within the iſland, the other half is paid him out of the exchequer of Great Britain.

The inhabitants are 1280 whites, 1172 free people of colour, and 27,156 ſlaves.

GRENADA.

GRENADA was diſcovered and named by Columbus in his third voyage, in 1498. He found it poſſeſſed by a numerous and warlike people, amongſt whom it does not appear that the Spaniards

Spaniards ever attempted to force a ſettlement. They happily remained in peaceful obſcurity until 1650, when Du Parquet, the French governor of Martinico, fitted out at his own charge an expedition againſt this iſland; and, as the hiſtory of the achievement is written by a prieſt named Du Tertre, barbarity and ſuperſtition are emblazoned in their ſtrongeſt colours. A predatory expedition againſt a harmleſs race, unknown to their invaders, began by the adminiſtration of the holy ſacrament of our Lord's ſupper to all the individuals engaged, and on their arrival at the ſcene of their intended robbery and butchery, the croſs was ſet up and ceremonies termed religious, but in reality a mockery of religion, were performed. Contrary to the wiſh of the French, the natives received them with ſo much hoſpitality and kindneſs, that no pretence for hoſtility could be found. Du Parquet therefore contrived, under the ſemblance of preſents, to give the natives ſome knives, hatchets, a few glaſs beads, and to the chiefs two bottles of brandy; and in conſideration of this traſh, he aſſerted that he had fairly purchaſed the iſland. The Charribs denying the ceſſion, furniſhed the deſired pretext for butchery; and in a ſhort time they were all, without diſtinction of age or ſex, ſavagely murdered; and the French having reduced the iſland to a deſart, it continued but thinly peopled until conquered by Great Britain in 1762. It was ceded to this crown by the treaty of 1763, and after being conquered by D'Eſtaing in the American war, was reſtored in 1783.

Grenada contains about 80,000 acres of land; of which although no leſs than 72,141 acres paid taxes in 1776, yet the quantity actually cultivated has never exceeded 50,000 acres. The face of the country is mountainous, but not inacceſſible in any part, and it abounds with ſprings and rivulets. On the whole, Grenada appears to be fertile in a high degree, and by the variety, as well as excellence, of its returns, ſeems adapted to every tropical production.

This iſland is divided into ſix pariſhes, St. George, St. David, St. Andrew, St. Patrick, St. Mark, and St. John; and its chief dependency, *Cariacou*, forms a ſeventh pariſh. It is only ſince the reſtoration of Grenada to Great Britain by the peace of 1783, that an iſland law has been obtained for the eſtabliſhment of a Proteſtant clergy. This act paſſed in 1784, and provided ſtipends of 330*l.* currency, and 60*l.* for houſe-rent per annum, for five clergymen; viz. one for the town and pariſh of St. George, three for the other five out-pariſhes of Grenada, and one for Cariacou. Beſide theſe ſtipends, there

there are valuable glebe lands, which had been appropriated to the ſupport of the Roman Catholic prieſthood, while that was the eſtabliſhed religion.

The capital of Grenada is called *St. George*; its French name was *Fort Royal*. It is ſituated in a ſpacious bay, on the weſt or lee ſide of the iſland, not far from the ſouth end: it poſſeſſes one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious harbours for ſhipping in the Engliſh Weſt Indies, which has been lately fortified at a great expence. The other towns are, properly ſpeaking, inconſiderable villages or hamlets, generally ſituated at the bays or ſhipping places in the ſeveral out-pariſhes. Grenada has two ports of entry, with ſeparate eſtabliſhments, and diſtinct revenue officers; one at St. George, the capital, and one at Grenville Bay, a town or harbour on the eaſt or windward ſide of the iſland.

The governor's ſalary is 3200*l.* currency per annum, which is raiſed by a poll-tax on all ſlaves; and it is the practice in Grenada to paſs a ſalary bill on the arrival of every new governor. In all caſes of abſence beyond twelve months, the ſalary ceaſes. The council conſiſts of twelve members, and the aſſembly of twenty-ſix. A freehold of fifty acres is a qualification to ſit as repreſentative for the pariſhes, and a freehold of fifty pounds houſe-rent in St. George qualifies a repreſentative for the town. An eſtate of ten acres in fee, or for life, or a rent of ten pounds in any of the out-towns, gives a vote for the repreſentatives of each pariſh reſpectively; and a yearly rent of twenty pounds iſſuing out of any freehold or life eſtate in the town of St. George gives a vote for the town.

The law courts in Grenada, beſides thoſe of Chancery and Ordinary, are, firſt, the Court of Grand Seſſion of the Peace, held each year in March and September. In this court the firſt perſon named in the commiſſion of the peace preſides, who is uſually the preſident or ſenior in council. 2dly. The Court of Common Pleas, conſiſting of one chief and four aſſiſtant juſtices, whoſe commiſſions are during pleaſure. The chief-juſtice is uſually appointed in England, a profeſſional man, with a ſalary of 600*l.* per annum. The four aſſiſtant juſtices are uſually appointed by the governor from among the gentlemen of the iſland, and act without ſalary. 3dly. The Court of Exchequer. The barons in this court are commiſſioned in like manner as in the Court of Common Pleas. 4thly. The Court of Admiralty, for trial of all prize cauſes in war, and revenue ſeizures in peace or war: it has one judge and one ſurrogate. Laſtly, The governor and council compoma Court of Error, for trying appeals from the Court of Common Pleas.

It

It has been obſerved, that the population, both in white people and thoſe of colour, was on the decline in this iſland. The whites were formerly 1600; they are now ſtated to be 800: the free people of colour are 1600, and the ſlaves 32,603.

The dependencies on Grenada, called the Grenadines, are a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, none of which are entitled to notice except *Cariacou*. This iſle is ſituated four leagues from the north end of Grenada. It contains 6913 acres of fertile and well cultivated land, producing about a million lbs. of cotton, beſides corn, yams, potatoes, and plantains for the negroes. It has a town called *Hillſborough*.

TOBAGO.

This iſland, when in the hands of the Dutch, was called *New Valcheren*. It is about ten leagues to the north of Trinidad, and forty ſouth of Barbadoes. Its length is about thirty-two miles, but its breadth only about twelve, and its circumference about eighty miles. The climate is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to other iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of cinnamon, nutmeg, and gumcopal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and rivers are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kinds of ſhipping. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who obſtinately defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; by that of 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain: in June, 1781, it was taken by the French; ceded to them by the treaty of 1783; and captured by the Britiſh in 1793; reſtored at the peace of Amiens; but being recaptured in 1803, was definitively ceded by the treaty of 1814. This iſland, above all others in the Weſt Indies under the Britiſh crown, perhaps, admits of the moſt improvement. It differs from every other, inaſmuch as it is cultivatable throughout, although not half is yet in a ſtate of cultivation. The ſoil is deep and rich; the hills are covered with woods, and rivers deſcending from them run through every valley into the ſea.

There is annexed to it, near its northern extremity, a ſmall iſle called *Little Tobago*.

Tobago

Tobago is ſtated to contain 100,000 acres, of which 40,000 are cultivated. The population is 470 white perſons, 250 free, and 17,000 proprietary perſons of colour.

TRINIDAD.

THE account of this iſland is derived entirely from Mr. Colquhoun's Treatiſe on the Wealth, Power, and Reſources of the Britiſh Empire.

The iſland of Trinidad was diſcovered by Columbus in 1498. It is about ninety miles in length, and fifty in breadth. In 1595 it was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh; and in 1676 by the French, who plundered and left it. It remained afterwards under the dominion of Spain, inhabited however by a mixture of ſeveral nations, until the year 1797, when it was captured by the Britiſh, and was afterwards ceded in perpetuity to this country by the treaty of Amiens in 1801. It abounds with reſources calculated to render it a moſt valuable colony. The ſoil is rich in many parts. There is an almoſt endleſs variety of timber, ſome of which has grown to an immenſe ſize; and much of the wood is extremely beautiful, and well adapted for cabinet work. The iſland produces ſugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, of a fine quality, Indian corn, and every ſpecies of ground proviſions peculiar to the Weſt Indies, with a great variety of fruits. It has a lake, compoſed of a ſubſtance ſimilar to pitch, apparently poſſeſſing all the properties of that reſin, which is conſidered as an extraordinary phenomenon. This fine iſland only requires an extenſive and induſtrious white population to render it among the richeſt and moſt productive countries in the world; ſince every article of ſuperior value, in a commercial point of view, produced in tropical climates, may be here cultivated to great advantage. Proviſions, equal to the conſumption of a very extenſive population, may be raiſed at much leſs labour than in northern countries, and vaſt herds of cattle may be reared and fed. Much of the timber might alſo be converted into an important article of commerce.

The juriſprudence of this colony is ſtill regulated by the Spaniſh laws; and the Governor and Council, appointed by the Crown, legiſlate for the people, as far as legiſlation is neceſſary. Indeed, when it is conſidered that the Britiſh adult population is only 761, and the foreign white inhabitants 1129, the colony has not yet reached the maturity which may be neceſſary for the introduction of the Britiſh conſtitution and laws.

The

The produce of ſugar and rum may be increaſed when labourers can be procured: the inferior ſtaples of coffee, cocoa, cotton, tobacco, ginger, pimento, and the minor articles of caſtor-oil, arrow-root, tamarinds, dye, and ornamental woods, Indian corn and Guinea corn, buck wheat, yams, ſweet potatoes, plantains, hogs, poultry, and Guinea graſs for paſturing cattle, might, in the lands and woods of Trinidad, be largely produced, without any great labour.

This extenſive and fine iſland has ſhared in the diſaſters to which many other colonies have been ſubject. In the year 1809, the extenſive town of *Port of Spain* (the capital of the iſland), chiefly built of wood, was nearly deſtroyed by a dreadful fire, which conſumed all or moſt of the public edifices, and reduced the inhabitants to the greateſt diſtreſs. Toward their relief, and for the purpoſes of rebuilding the public edifices, Parliament liberally granted 50,000*l.* ſterling, in the years 1811 and 1812. The town has ſince been rebuilt with ſtone, of which the iſland furniſhes abundance, and which, it is to be hoped, may prevent the recurrence of a ſimilar calamity. Although this valuable iſland was in the hands of the Spaniards nearly three hundred years, yet it may ſtill be conſidered in its infancy. The ſtate of this colony, in population and agriculture, &c. according to an official return made on the 31ſt of December, 1811, by order of the local government, ſtood thus:—

White population - -	2617
Free people of colour - -	7043
Indians - - - -	1716
Negro labourers - - -	21143
	32519
Free Africans - - -	111
Increaſe, as by an annexed Table	460
	33090

The acres of land cultivated and granted are as follow: in ſugar, 10,790; cotton, 1262; proviſions, 5726; paſturage, 9497; granted, 147,548; total, 174,823.

POSSESSIONS ON THE CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Situation and Extent. The Britiſh ſettlements on this continent are Demerary and Eſſequibo, Berbice and Surinam.

They formed together what uſed to be called Dutch America, or Dutch Guiana. This territory is bounded north by the Atlantic ocean, eaſt by Cayenne, ſouth by an unexplored country called Amazonia, and weſt by Oronoko, a Spaniſh ſettlement. It lies between 5° and 7° north latitude, extending along the coaſt from the mouth of the Oronoko river to the river Marowyne. It is divided into three diſtinct governments, Surinam, Berbice, Eſſequibo and Demerary; the laſt being two diſtricts which form one government.

Rivers. A number of fine rivers paſs through this province; the chief of which are Eſſequibo, Surinam, Demerary, Berbice, and Canje. *Eſſequibo* is 21 miles wide at its mouth, and is more than 300 miles in length. *Surinam* river is three quarters of a mile wide at its mouth, navigable for the largeſt veſſels twelve miles, and for ſmaller veſſels ſixty or ſeventy miles further. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the proſpects very delightful. The entrance is guarded by a fort and two redoubts, but not of any great ſtrength. At ſix miles up, the *Commanwine* falls into it, and on the point of land between the two rivers are the forts. *Demerary* is about two miles wide at its mouth, oppoſite the fort, which is on the eaſt bank of the river, and about forty-five miles diſtant from Abary Creek. Twelve miles above the fort it is ſcarcely a mile wide, and its courſe is from ſouth to north. It is navigable upwards of two hundred miles for veſſels which can paſs the bar at its mouth, which is a mud bank, not having above twenty-four feet at the higheſt tides. The difference between high and low water-mark is from ten to twelve feet. *Berbice*, otherwiſe called *Berbeu*, is a quarter of a mile broad, and two fathoms deep at its mouth. The land on both ſides is low and woody. The *Canje* is a fine river, and navigable for colony ſchooners thirty miles up; it runs nearly in an eaſterly direction; at the head of it are immenſe falls and cataracts: about forty miles below theſe is a creek, which connects itſelf with the Courantine, through which overland diſpatches are brought from Surinam to Berbice by the Indians.

Climate. In the months of September, October and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to ſtrangers. The common diſeaſes are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ache, and the dropſy. Along the ſea coaſt the water is brackiſh and unwholeſome; the air damp and ſultry. The thermometer ranges from 75 to 90 through the year. One hundred miles back from the ſea is quite a different ſoil, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholeſome air, where a fire ſometimes would not be diſagreeable. A north-eaſt breeze never fails

fails to blow from about nine o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hotteſt ſeaſons; and as the days and nights, throughout the year, are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants ſo greatly incommoded by its warmth, as thoſe who live at a greater diſtance from the equator. The ſeaſons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years ſo much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free paſſage is opened for the air and vapours. The water of the lower parts of the rivers is brackiſh, and unfit for uſe; and the inhabitants are obliged to preſerve rain water, which is uncommonly ſweet and good.

Natives. The country adjacent to the ſettlements is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmleſs, friendly race. They are, in general, ſhort of ſtature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, ſtraight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad ſhoulders. In their ears, noſes, and hair, the women wear ornaments of ſilver and other metals, or ſhining materials. Both men and women go naked. Their language appears to be very ſoft. They are averſe to every kind of labour; but manufacture a few articles, ſuch as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water-pots, baſkets, a red or yellow dye called roucau, and ſome other trifles, all which they bring to town and exchange for ſuch things as they ſtand in need of. They paint themſelves red, and ſome are curiouſly figured with black. Their food conſiſts chiefly of fiſh and crabs, and caſſava, of which they plant great quantities; and this is almoſt the only produce they attend to. They cannot be ſaid to be abſolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few croſs ſticks, covered with branches, ſo as to defend them from the rain and ſun, they frequently quit their habitations, and eſtabliſh them elſewhere. They do not ſhun the whites, and have been ſerviceable againſt the runaway negroes.

Agriculture. One ſyſtem of agriculture prevails in all parts. On each ſide of the rivers and creeks are ſituated the plantations, containing from 500 to 2000 acres each, in number about 550 in the whole colony, producing ſugar, coffee, cocoa, and cotton. In the foreſts are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and ſome woods for ornamental purpoſes, particularly a kind of mahogany, called copie. The ſoil is perhaps as fertile, and luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, clayey earth, lying in ſome places above the level of the rivers at high water (which riſes about eight feet), and in moſt places below it. Whenever, from a continual courſe of cultivation for many years, a piece of land

becomes impoveriſhed (for manure is not known here), it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility; and, in the mean time, a new piece of woodland is cleared. This country has never experienced thoſe dreadful ſcourges of the Weſt Indies, hurricanes; and droughts, from the lowneſs of the lands, it has not to fear; nor has the produce ever been deſtroyed by inſects, or by the blaſt. The rivers abound with fiſh, ſome of which are good; at certain ſeaſons of the year, there is plenty of turtle. The woods afford plenty of deer, hares, and rabbits; a kind of buffalo, and two ſpecies of wild hogs. They are infeſted with ſeveral ſpecies of tigers, but with no other deſtructive animals. The rivers are rendered unſafe by alligators from four to ſeven feet long. Scorpions and tarantulas are found, of a large ſize, and great venom; and other inſects without number, ſome of them very dangerous and troubleſome; alſo, the torporific eel, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand, or any conductor, has the effect of a ſtrong electrical ſhock. There are ſerpents, of which ſome are venomous, and others, as has been aſſerted by many credible perſons, are from 25 to 50 feet long. In the woods are the ſloth, monkeys, and parrots, in all their varieties; alſo ſome birds of beautiful plumage, among others, the flamingo; but few or no ſinging birds.

Theſe general particulars applying to all, only a ſlight notice of each government will be neceſſary.

Demerary and Essequibo. Theſe form one government. The capital, *Stabroeck*, the political metropolis, and principal ſeat of exchange for produce, of all the countries adjacent to the Demerary and Eſſequibo, is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the river Demerary. Its ſite is low and level. It has an oblong form, being about a quarter of a mile broad and a mile long. The principal ſtreets are quite ſtrait, with carriage roads. The middle ſtreet, leading from the King's ſtelling, is paved with bricks, and has lamps on each ſide; another public ſtelling, or wharf (beſide ſeveral that are private), is kept purpoſely in order for landing and ſhipping goods. A navigable canal on each ſide of the town, which fills and empties with the tide, affords the ſame convenience to thoſe houſes which are not ſituated near the water ſide. There are no taverns or lodging-houſes, but the merchants receive, with great hoſpitality, ſtrangers who come to them properly recommended. The building of this town was begun in 1774.

The firſt ſettlement on the banks of Eſſequibo was formed in 1698, but, owing to an erroneous idea that the land adjacent to the ſea was too low and ſwampy for cultivation, it was commenced on the higher land, nearly one hundred miles from the

the mouth of the river, at a ſpot where the ſoil was by no means ſo favourable. The land was granted gratis, under expreſs ſtipulations that a certain portion ſhould be under cultivation in a given time, with the farther inducement of a larger grant, ſhould the terms of the firſt have been complied with; and, as a puniſhment for non-compliance, a fine was to be levied, which, if not paid, the lands and improvements were to be ſold. A governor was appointed, and a conditional code of laws given by the Weſt India Company of Holland, ſubject to the approbation of the States General. So little progreſs, however, was then made in the improvement of the colonies, that, in the American war, they were taken by an Engliſh privateer, and recaptured by a French corvette. At the peace, in 1783, they returned into the poſſeſſion of the Dutch; they were captured in 1796, and remained in the hands of the Engliſh, until reſtored at the peace of Amiens; on the renewal of hoſtilities, they were again conquered; and at the general pacification, in 1814, were finally ſurrendered to Great Britain, and moſt reaſonably ſo, for long poſſeſſion, connexion, and the inveſtment of capital, had rendered them far more Engliſh than Dutch.

The preſent population is ſtated to be 4,000 whites; 2,500 free perſons of colour, and 70,000 ſlaves.

BERBICE. Berbice, according to the ancient limits, is bounded on the eaſt by the Devil's Creek, and on the weſt by Abary Creek, which ſeparates that colony from Demerary. The river Berbice is ſhallow, but broad; nearly a hundred plantations have been formed on its banks. The chief produce is ſugar, but it alſo ſupplies cotton, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, and a dying ſtuff called roucau. The goods carried thither are the ſame as thoſe traded with in the reſt of the Weſt Indies. The Dutch laid the foundations of this colony in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. About the year 1626, one Van Peere, of Fluſhing, began to ſend ſhips, which carried out Europeans, who ſtaid there to trade with the Indians, and collect produce. By the year 1690, the colony was ſo far increaſed, that the French, who made a hoſtile landing, could levy a contribution of 20,000 florins. This ſettlement was comprehended in the charter of the Dutch Weſt India Company; but, in 1678, an arrangement was made with the family of Van Peere, who were in fact the founders and proprietors, by which it was granted to them as a perpetual and hereditary fief. This grant was confirmed in 1703, and was reſpected until 1712, when a flotilla of French privateers, under the command of one Caſſard, went to attack the ſettlement. Baron Mouars commanded the troops who were landed, and who

agreed for a contribution of 300,000 florins; which was eventually diſcharged by the houſe of Van Hoorn and Co., in conſideration of the ceſſion of three-fourths of the concern, by the family of Van Peere. Under this company, the colony was cultivated with vigour and ſucceſs. In Holland, its affairs were adminiſtered by ſeven directors, choſen by, and from among the ſhare-holders. They received a yearly ſalary of 200 florins; and gave in their accounts to an annual meeting of proprietors, who named auditors.

The land adjacent to the ſea being very low and marſhy, the firſt ſettlers of this colony went fifty miles up the river, where they built a town and fortreſs, called Zelandica. As population began to increaſe, and cultivation extended, the inconvenience of being ſo far from the river's mouth, preſented itſelf in various forms; and with a view of inducing veſſels from Europe, with cargoes for Berbice, to anchor directly in the river, inſtead of going to Demerary, the ſeat of government was removed within a mile of the mouth of the river, to

New Amſterdam, which was the name given to the town, built on the ſouth ſide of Canje river, running in that direction up the banks of the Berbice a mile and a half, with the houſes facing the water. The Dutch, in laying out this town, paid every attention to health and convenience; each allotment appears an iſland within itſelf; the ditches, or trenches, round the houſes, fill and empty themſelves every tide, by which means all filth or dirt is carried off before it has time to ſtagnate, or occaſion unhealthy effects. Each lot is a quarter of an acre of land, ſeparated, as before mentioned, from the adjoining one; which not only leaves a free circulation of air, but allows to every houſe a kitchen-garden, producing vegetables ſufficient for the family. The houſes are different from thoſe of Stabroeck, in this reſpect; they are not more than a ſtory and a half high, very long and narrow, with galleries on either ſide for the purpoſe of walking and ſmoking in the ſhade. They are moſtly covered with troolie and plantain leaves, a ſpecies of thatch, in preference to ſhingles, as being conſidered ſo much cooler; but the quantity of vermin and inſects which they harbour does not permit Engliſhmen to uſe this covering, and their houſes in New Amſterdam may be diſtinguiſhed by being ſhingled. The government-houſe and attached buildings are laid out in a ſplendid manner; they are of brick, and built in the European ſtyle. The offices of the fiſcal, receiver, and ſecretary, are ſituated behind the government-houſe, and built of brick. The fortifications are of no great import; Fort St. Andrew, and a ſmall battery, guard the entrance of the river on the eaſt ſide, and York redoubt on the

the oppoſite bank. There are two entrances into the river, one on each ſide of Crab Iſland, which is reſerved by the colonial government for erecting a fort, that will completely command the paſſage into the river, and, being an iſland, will be more eaſily and better defended than the preſent fort. *Crab Iſland* is about two miles in circumference, and might be made a very defenſible poſt; but that would not avail much, as the fate of Demerary will always govern that of Berbice, as troops from the former can at all times overrun the latter, and the convenient ferries, at all the creeks and rivers, would facilitate the paſſage of horſes and carriages.

The free population is ſtated to be, whites 1000; people of colour, 600; the ſlaves are 25,000.

SURINAM. This colony was firſt poſſeſſed by the French as early as the year 1630, or 1640, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In 1650 it was taken up by ſome Engliſhmen, and in 1662 a charter was granted by Charles II. About this time, it was conſiderably augmented by the ſettlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whoſe deſcendants (with other Jews) compoſe at preſent one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch; and the Engliſh having got poſſeſſion, about the ſame time, of the then Dutch colony of New York, each party retained its conqueſt. Moſt of the Engliſh planters retired to Jamaica, leaving their ſlaves behind them, whoſe language is ſtill Engliſh, but ſo corrupted, as not at firſt to be underſtood by an Engliſhman.

Paramaribo, the chief town, ſuppoſed to be named from Lord Willoughby of Parham, governor of the ſettlement in the time of Charles the Second, contains about four hundred houſes, on the bank of Surinam river, in a pleaſant but unhealthy ſituation. The houſes are of wood, tolerably convenient, erected on foundations of European bricks. Its port is five leagues from the ſea, and has every convenience. It is the rendezvous of all the ſhips from the mother country, which come to receive the produce of the colony. The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any ſtrength.

Surinam is peopled by 3186 whites; 2889 free perſons of colour; and 60,000 ſlaves.

As the population of all theſe colonies is for the moſt part Dutch, their intercourſe with the kingdom of the Netherlands is to a certain degree permitted, under regulations defined by the ſtatute 56 Geo. III. c. 91.

Of the future importance of theſe poſſeſſions, it is impoſ-

ſible to ſpeak with certainty; but if the colonization were vigorouſly purſued, it muſt be immenſe, as the number of acres already in cultivation is ſtated at 1,500,000, and the quantity which might be ſo exceeds calculation.

FALKLAND'S ISLANDS.

NEAR the ſouthern extremity of this continent are placed theſe deſpicable, uninhabited, unproductive rocks, worthy of notice only becauſe they had, in the year 1770, nearly occaſioned a war between this country and Spain; and enumerated here only becauſe the Britiſh government, when they were evacuated, thought it worth while to retain a title to them, which they perpetuated by ſetting up an inſcription on a metal plate.

NEW SOUTH WALES.

This name is given to the eaſtern part of New Holland, diſcovered in 1770 by Captain Cook, who ſailed along the coaſt, a courſe, if laid down in a ſtraight line, of no leſs than 27 degrees of latitude, amounting to nearly 2000 miles. Some ſuppoſe that the extenſive region called New Holland, when more thoroughly inveſtigated, will be found to conſiſt of two, three, or more vaſt iſlands, interſected by narrow ſeas. However this be, the moſt recent and authentic charts indicate New Holland as a country fully entitled to the appellation of a continent. The length from eaſt to weſt is about 43 degrees of longitude, in the medial latitude of 25°; that is, about 2340 geographical miles, or 2730 Britiſh. The breadth from north to ſouth extends from 11° to 39°; being 28 degrees, 1680 geographical miles, or 1960 Britiſh. Europe, the ſmalleſt of the ancient continents, is ſuppoſed to be about 3300 Britiſh miles in its utmoſt length, and its greateſt breadth 2350: ſo that Mr. Pennant rather exaggerates when he aſſimilates the ſize of Europe and Notaſia; the latter being a quarter leſs than the former. But the proximity of ſo many large iſlands recompenſes this defect; and the whole of Auſtralaſia will probably be found greatly to exceed the European continent. The diſcovery of this territory ſeems not to belong ſtrictly to modern navigators, ſince it is laid down, although not defined, in a very old map, executed by John Rotz in 1542. It is probable, therefore, that the Spaniards and Portugueſe had found the northern parts of New Holland more than a century before the pretended Dutch diſcoveries; but neither can interfere with

with the diſcovery of the ſouth-eaſt part by the immortal Cook. This illuſtrious navigator had carefully examined the coaſt, and juſtly deeming it of great importance, took poſſeſſion of it in the name of the King of Great Britain in 1770. On the cloſe of the American war, it being difficult to ſelect a proper place of tranſportation for criminals ſentenced to that puniſhment, this new territory was fixed on in 1786; and the firſt ſhip ſailed from Spithead on the 30th of January, 1787, and arrived on the 20th of the ſame month in the following year. Botany Bay being found to be a leſs advantageous ſtation than was expected, and no ſpot there appearing proper for the colony, Governor Phillip transferred it to another excellent inlet, about twelve miles further to the north, called Port Jackſon; on the ſouth ſide of which, at a ſpot called Sydney Cove, this ſettlement is now fixed. Port Jackſon is one of the nobleſt harbours in the world, extending about fourteen miles in length, with numerous creeks or coves. This new colony experienced conſiderable difficulties in procuring ſubſiſtence; and the expence of conveying and maintaining the inhabitants was conſidered as too great for the object. But men, of more extenſive and philoſophical views, beheld with complacence the deſign of transferring the Engliſh race and name to ſuch a diſtant and important region of the globe; they viewed it as an enterpriſe which might ſupply new objects to commerce and ſcience, and, in time, preſent as it were a new country, of riſing knowledge and civilization, in the midſt of a benighted and ſavage region of the globe. Nor were hopes of ambition and glory undelighted with this new diffuſion of the great and ſurpriſing people of a remote European iſle, in the moſt diſtant extremities of the navigable ocean.

The perſons who went out with Governor Phillip conſiſted of 800 convicts, and a portion of marines: with theſe were laid the foundation of the new ſettlement, which continued gradually to improve under his government, until the cloſe of the year 1792. Numberleſs obſtructions exiſted, during this early period, to check the growth of the colony; amongſt the principal of which may be remarked: 1ſt, the diſcordant materials of which the ſettlement was to be conſtructed; 2dly, the diſputes with the natives; and, 3dly, the occaſional preſſure of want, which, for a long time, was unavoidable, on account of the remoteneſs of the colony from Europe. The continual diſorders amongſt the convicts, which no lenity could aſſuage, no ſeverity effectually check, were injurious to the proſperity of the colony, whoſe true intereſts required a combination of reciprocal confidence and mutual exertion. It was not to the commiſſion of depredations upon each other that the reſtleſs and

and diſhoneſt diſpoſitions of the convicts confined themſelves; even the poor and miſerable natives were made the dupes of a ſyſtem of knavery which they could not penetrate; and their ſpears, their ſhields, their canoes, and their perſons, were equally expoſed to the violence of the new ſettlers. It was eaſy to foreſee the conſequences of ſuch conduct: the natives at firſt diſcovered ſymptoms of juſtifiable reſerve; they ſubſequently adopted meaſures of an hoſtile complexion, and ſeveral unfortunate convicts were found murdered in the woods. In vain did the governor iſſue order after order, and proclamation after proclamation; inſults ſtill continued to be offered to the natives, and ſuch acts of retaliation enſued as circumſtances would allow. Governor Phillip himſelf was wounded by a ſpear, which one of the ſavages threw at him, under the influence of a momentary apprehenſion. Scarcity, while it could not be effectually removed, produced the moſt pernicious effects; it relaxed the ſinews of induſtry, where it did exiſt, or ſtrengthened the pretexts of indolence: when men were reduced from a plentiful allowance to a weekly ration, which ſcarcely ſufficed to preſerve exiſtence; when the ſtore-houſes were almoſt empty of proviſions, and the boundleſs ocean preſented no object of relief, and when the buſy mind painted to itſelf the dangers inſeparable from the length of the voyage which might delay or prevent the arrival of ſuccours, the inclination to laborious exertion became entirely ſuſpended; the progreſs of the ſettlement toward maturity was neceſſarily retarded, and the operations which proceeded, at theſe periods of general debility, moved with diſcouraging ſlowneſs and languor. Yet, even under theſe diſadvantages, the ſettlement had been ſcarcely eſtabliſhed four years, before two towns were formed, and ſeveral ſocial inſtitutions ſhewed promiſes of future maturity.

Governor Phillip ſailed to England, on the 11th of December, 1792, when Lieutenant-Governor Groſe ſucceeded to the government; and during his period, the improvements in the ſettlement aſſumed a more deciſive and favourable aſpect. The ſettlers were now enabled to ſell corn to the public ſtores, which the commiſſary received directions to purchaſe, at a given price: paſſage-boats were licenſed and eſtabliſhed between the towns of Sydney and Paramatta; and the number of ſettlers rapidly increaſed. On the 15th of December, 1794, Lieutenant-Governor Groſe left the colony for England, and Captain Paterſon, of the New South Wales Corps, aſſumed the government, until the arrival of Governor Hunter, who came out in the Reliance, on the 7th of September, 1795.

One of the firſt acts of the new governor was the eſtabliſh-

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ment of a printing preſs; the advantages of which ſoon became obvious, in the more ready communication of all orders for the regulation of the ſettlement.

The bulls and cows which had been originally brought over to the new continent, had, by the careleſsneſs of their keeper, been ſuffered to ſtray into the woods, and all ſearch after them had proved ineffectual until this period, when a fine and numerous herd of wild cattle was diſcovered in the interior of the country, which was evidently the progeny of the animals which had been ſo long loſt to the colony. The protection of this wild herd, and its increaſe, became a matter of public intereſt, ſince it would ſerve as a valuable reſource, in caſe of neceſſity; and meaſures were accordingly adopted, to prevent any encroachment on that liberty which it had preſerved above ſeven years.

In the commencement of 1796, a play houſe was opened at Sydney, under the ſanction of the governor. Toward the cloſe of the ſame year, the houſes in Sydney and Paramatta were numbered, and divided into portions, each of which was placed under the ſuperintendance of a principal inhabitant. The county of Cumberland was aſſeſſed, a few months afterwards, for the erection of a county gaol. A town clock was alſo ſet up in Sydney, an accommodation which had been hitherto unknown. The natives had been, of late years, perfectly reconciled to their new countrymen; and although their attachment to their accuſtomed habits and ſituations made them abſtain from taking up new reſidences, and from mixing indiſcriminately with the Europeans, they had become comparatively ſocial, and commenced an intercourſe which was calculated to rivet the proſperity of the colony Many of the convicts had reformed their lives; and, inſtead of being examples of depravity, had turned to habits of induſtry, and endeavoured to benefit ſociety; while the apprehenſions of famine had been diſpelled by agricultural improvements: the ſtock had increaſed wonderfully, the granaries and ſtorehouſes were amply ſupplied. The peace of the colony was threatened, however, in 1800, by the ſeditious conduct of a number of Iriſh convicts who had recently arrived. They had aſſembled frequently; and a Roman Catholic prieſt, named Harold, who was diſcovered to be one of the inſtigators and originators of the ſcheme of inſurrection, was taken into cuſtody. Voluntary aſſociations were embodied, and every meaſure of prudent precaution was promptly adopted. In September, 1800, Governor Hunter quitted the colony, having exerciſed the functions of government five years; during which his attention to the intereſts of the ſettlement was unremitted, and his humanity and condeſcenſion rendered him ineſtimably

eſtimably dear to every one. The prudence, judgment, and care with which he had conducted himſelf, will be effectually ſhown by the comparative ſtatement of the condition of the colony at the periods of his arrival and departure.

At the cloſe of the year 1795, the public and private ſtock of the colony conſiſted of 57 horſes and mares, 101 cows and cow-calves, 74 bulls and bull-calves, 52 oxen, 1531 ſheep, 1427 goats, and 1869 hogs; and the poultry was exceedingly numerous. The total of the land in cultivation amounted to 5419 acres; but that which was ſown was ſomewhat below 3000 acres. At this period the ſtorehouſes were exhauſted ſo completely, that on the arrival of Governor Hunter, there were no ſalt proviſions left, and the allowance of other food was much reduced. At the period of his departure, the live ſtock, in the public and private poſſeſſion, amounted to 60 horſes, 143 mares; 332 bulls and oxen, 712 cows; 2031 male ſheep, 4093 females; 727 male goats, 1455 females; 4017 hogs. The quantity of land ſown with wheat was 4666 acres, of Indian corn 2930, and of barley 82 acres. In New South Wales and Norfolk Iſland, the numbers of the colony had been ſwollen to the amount of 6000; and the general proſperity appeared rapidly increaſing.

On the ſeceſſion of Governor Hunter, the government devolved on Governor King. Soon after his acceſſion, a quantity of copper coin was received from England and put into circulation. The proſperity of the colony continued progreſſive, although not without fluctuation, and occaſional interruption from the injuries of nature. Among theſe may be reckoned an earthquake, frequent inundations of the Hawkesbury river, and thunder and hail-ſtorms; the latter of which are peculiarly violent and deſtructive.

Early in 1804, the tranquillity of the colony experienced ſome interruption. Since the introduction of the Iriſh, diſcontent had taken root; the moſt unprincipled of the convicts, who were tranſported for ſedition, cheriſhing the principles of their new companions, only waited for the maturity of their deſigns to commence the execution of ſchemes which involved the happineſs and ſecurity of the whole colony. The operations of theſe diſaffected perſons had been conducted with ſuch ſecrecy, that ſuſpicion was baffled until the 4th of March in this year, when an inſurrection broke out at Caſtle Hill, a ſettlement between Paramatta and Hawkeſbury; and the inſurgents expreſſed their determination to emancipate themſelves, or periſh in the ſtruggle. Information of the extent and alarming appearance of this mutiny having reached the governor, it was deemed neceſſary, on the following day, to proclaim

claim martial law; and a party of the troops, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel George Johnſton, was directed to purſue the rebels. After a long march, the military detachment came up with them near the Ponds, about half way between Paramatta and Hawkeſbury, and after a ſhort parley the colonel found it neceſſary to fire; and having killed ſeveral, and made priſoners of the principals who ſurvived, the remainder made a rapid retreat. Ten of the leaders of this inſurrection, who had been obſerved as particularly conſpicuous and zealous in their endeavours to ſeduce the reſt, were tried on the 8th of March, and convicted. Three were executed on the ſame evening at Paramatta, two on the following day at Sydney, and three at Caſtle Hill; the other two were reſpited, and, favourable circumſtances appearing, finally pardoned. On the 9th, martial law was repealed. This little narrative aſſumes a ſort of importance, as it commemorates the firſt warlike operation in New South Wales.

On the 12th of Auguſt, 1806, when Governor King was ſucceeded by Governor Bligh, the colony was in a ſtate of growing proſperity; although the progreſs of cultivation was conſiderably retarded by frequent overflowings of the Hawkeſbury, which never failed to produce extenſive injury to the ſettlers on its banks. Some unfortunate differences between Governor Bligh and ſeveral of the principal ſettlers aroſe to ſuch a height, that, in order to prevent an inſurrection and all its dreadful conſequences, his perſon was ſeized, and he was, for a time, impriſoned; Lieutenant-Colonel Johnſton being obliged to take upon him the duties of government until His Majeſty's pleaſure ſhould be known. Governor Bligh, who had been allowed to go on board a veſſel of the royal navy, under a ſolemn engagement to return directly to England, thought it his duty to remain on the coaſt until orders came from home, by which he was, for form's ſake, reinſtated in the government, but immediately ſuperſeded by Colonel Macquarrie.

Such is the account of the progreſs of this intereſting colony, derived principally from the publication of Mr. David Dickinſon Mann; who, after many years reſidence, and ſerving in ſeveral public ſtations, publiſhed his account of New South Wales in 1811. At that time, according to the laſt muſter taken by him officially, the land in cultivation was 6887 acres of wheat, 3390 of maize, 535 of barley, 93 of oats, 100 of peas and beans, 301 of potatoes, 13 of turnips, 546 of orchard and garden, and 35 of flax, hemp, and hops. The ſtock conſiſted of 411 male horſes, 529 female ditto; 118 bulls, 5115 cows, 3771 oxen; 10,807 male, and 22,451 female ſheep;

ſheep; 936 male, and 2039 female goats; and 9820 male, and 9548 female pigs.

About the ſame time it appears that the number of inhabitants was as follows: —

Sydney diſtrict - - -	6158
Paramatta - - -	1807
Hawkeſbury - - - -	2389
Newcaſtle - - - -	100
Total	10454

Of theſe 5513 are men, 2220 women, and 2721 children; and of theſe from one-fourth to one-fifth were convicts. The troops were in number 1100, and the remainder free perſons. To theſe may be added, the ſettlements of *Port Dalrymple* and *Hobart's Town*, in Van Diemen's Land, about five degrees ſouth of Sydney, containing 1321 inhabitants: and at the date of the laſt return, 177 were living in Norfolk Iſland; but orders had been ſent out for its total abandonment.

The prices of proviſions at the ſame period will ſerve to ſhew what neceſſaries and luxuries of life are found in New South Wales, as well as the facilities of procuring them. It ſhould be premiſed, that the yearly wages for ſervants, with board, are ten pounds; weekly ditto, with proviſions, ſix ſhillings; daily wages, with board, one ſhilling; and daily wages, without board, two ſhillings and ſixpence.

Prices of Provisions. Wheat, twelve ſhillings per buſhel; maize, five ſhillings; barley, five ſhillings; oats, four ſhillings and ſixpence; potatoes, ten ſhillings per cwt.; turnips, four-pence per bunch; carrots, ſixpence per bunch; cabbages, three-pence each; lemons, ſixpence per dozen; peaches, two-pence per dozen; apples, two ſhillings per dozen; pears, three ſhillings per dozen; ſtrawberries, one ſhilling per quart; quinces, two ſhillings per dozen; water-melons, nine-pence each; muſk and other melons, one ſhilling each; apricots, one ſhilling per dozen; mulberries, one ſhilling per quart; Cape gooſeberries, eight-pence per quart; native currants, eight-pence per quart; oranges, raſp-berries, grapes, plums, almonds, pomegranates, limes, ſhaddocks, citrons, pine-apples, nectarines, and guavas, were at variable prices in proportion to their plenty or ſcarcity; cucumbers, one penny each; muſhrooms, eight-pence per quart; French beans, four-pence per quart; onions, twenty ſhillings per cwt.; peas, one ſhilling per quart; beans, nine-pence per quart; aſparagus, two ſhillings per hundred; artichokes, ſixpence each; ſpinage, one ſhilling per diſh; pumpkins, ſixpence each; cauliflowers, ſixpence each; brocoli, ſixpence per diſh; figs, three-pence

per dozen; beet-root, lettuces, radiſhes, ſallad of all kinds, horſe-radiſh, ſamphire, water-creſſes, celery, endive, and herbs of every deſcription, were extremely plentiful, and to be purchaſed at reaſonable rates.

Animal food was to be procured at the following prices: beef, 1*s.* 3*d.* per pound; mutton, 1*s.* 3*d.* per pound; pork, 1*s.* per pound; lamb, 1*s.* 3*d.* per pound; kangaroo, 8*d.* per pound; (the fleſh of this animal is ſomewhat ſimilar in taſte to Engliſh beef, but rather inferior, owing to the want of fat); goat mutton, 1*s.* per pound; turkeys, 10*s.* each; ducks, 4*s.* each; Muſcovy ducks, 5*s.* each; fowls, 2*s.* 6*d.* each; wild ducks, 2*s.* each; teal, 1*s.* 3*d.* each; rabbits, 4*s.* each; roaſting pigs, 5*s.* each; pigeons, 1*s.* 3*d.* each; kids, 5*s.* each; eggs, 1*s.* 6*d.* per dozen; butter, 6*s.* per pound; milk, 1*s.* per quart; cheeſe, 2*s.* 6*d.* per pound; oyſters, 1*s.* per quart; and lobſters, 1*s.* each.

Fiſh of every deſcription are exceedingly numerous, very good, and at moderate prices.

The following is to be conſidered as a full weekly ration, which is iſſued from the ſtores whenever there is a ſufficiency without a proſpect of want, to thoſe who are in the employ of government: ſeven pounds of ſalt-beef, or four pounds of ſalt-pork; eight pounds of flour or meal, or an addition of a quarter of a pound of wheat to each pound if it cannot be ground; peas or other pulſe, three pounds; ſix ounces of ſugar in lieu of butter. The ſame quantity is to be given by their employers to indented ſervants; but, as frequent alterations are neceſſary according to the preſſure of circumſtances, any deficiency is generally made up with maize.

Manufactures and Trade. The manufactures which had been eſtabliſhed were thoſe of coarſe woollen blanketting, coarſe woollen called drugget, and ſome of a finer quality; leather, which is very well tanned, pottery, tobacco-pipes, ſalt, and beer. There are alſo corn-mills, ſhops of every deſcription, and four auctioneers; and trade is encouraged by a general diſpoſition to ſhow, diſſipation, and gaiety. The powers of ſuch a territory, peopled by ſo ſmall a number of men in proportion to its extent, cannot yet be even gueſſed at. The minerals it may contain are as yet unknown; but with the moſt ordinary of theſe, and abundance of excellent coal, it is impoſſible but that a numerous population, with Britiſh ingenuity, induſtry, and perſeverance, muſt acquire wealth, and riſe to importance.

Natives. From the accounts of various navigators, there is room to infer that this extenſive tract is peopled by three or four races of men; thoſe obſerved in the ſouth-weſt being deſcribed

ſcribed as different from thoſe in the north, and both from thoſe in the eaſt, with whom alone we are intimately acquainted. Theſe are, perhaps, in the moſt early ſtage of ſociety which has yet been diſcovered in any part of the globe. They are merely divided into families, the ſenior being ſtyled Be-ana, or Father, which higheſt of their titles they alſo applied to Governor Phillip. Each family or tribe has a particular place of reſidence, and is diſtinguiſhed by adding *gal* to the name of the place; thus the ſouthern ſhore of Botany Bay is called *Givea*, and the tribe there *Givea-gal*. Another tribe, numerous and muſcular, has the ſingular property of exacting a tooth from young men of other families, the ſole token of government or ſubordination. No religion whatever is known, though they have a faint idea of a future exiſtence, and think their people return to the clouds, whence they originally fell. They may be ſaid to be exactly one degree above the brute creation, and, like monkies, are great mimics. They are of a low ſtature and ill-made, the arms, legs, and thighs being remarkably thin, owing, perhaps, to their poor living on fiſh, the only food of thoſe on the coaſt; while a few in the woods ſubſiſt on ſuch animals as they can catch, and climb trees for honey, flying ſquirrels, and opoſſums. The features of the women are not unpleaſant, though approaching to the negro. The black buſhy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thruſt through the cartilage of the noſe, give them a diſguſting appearance, which is not improved by the practice of rubbing fiſh-oil into their ſkins, as a protection from the air and moſquitos; ſo that, in hot weather, the ſtench is intolerable. They colour their faces with white or red clay. The women are marked by the amputation of the firſt two joints of the little finger on the left hand, which are ſuppoſed to obſtruct the operation of coiling their fiſhing-lines. It is, however, not improbable that this practice, and the extraction of a tooth from the boys, may be mere initiations, rude leſſons, that they may learn to bear pain with apathy. The children are ſeldom diſfigured, except by accidents from fire; and their ſight is prodigiouſly acute. Some are nearly as black as African negroes, while others exhibit a copper, or Malay colour; but the hair is long, not woolly. Their noſes are flat, noſtrils wide, ſunk eyes, thick brows and lips, with mouths of exceſſive width; but the teeth white and even.

The huts are moſt rudely conſtructed of the bark of trees, in the form of an oven; the fire being at the entrance, while within are ſmoke and naſtineſs. Here they ſleep promiſcuouſly, if not interrupted by their frequent enmities and aſſaſſinations. Fiſh are killed with a kind of prong, or taken by the women, with lines

lines of bark, and hooks of the mother-of-pearl oyſter, rubbed on a ſtone till the proper form is obtained. The fiſh are often broiled on a fire laid on ſand in the canoe. Beaſts are taken in a kind of toils. Caterpillars and worms are likewiſe articles of food. The canoes are made of bark, extended on a timber frame.

The gallantry of theſe ſavages towards the fair ſex Rouſſeau would doubtleſs have greatly admired. The courtſhip conſiſts in watching the lady's retirement, and then knocking her down with repeated blows of a club, or wooden ſword; after which the matrimonial victim is led, ſtreaming with blood, to her future huſband's party, when a ſcene enſues too ſhocking to relate. The woman thus raviſhed is called a wife; and polygamy is common. Both ſexes are naked; and the girls firſt learned from the Europeans that there was ſuch a thing as ſhame. Parturition is eaſy, and in a few hours after it, the mother walks about her uſual buſineſs. The infant is, for a few days, placed on a piece of ſoft bark, but is ſoon removed to the mother's ſhoulders, where it ſits with its little legs acroſs her neck, ſecuring itſelf by catching hold of her hair; it receives a name transferred from ſome bird, beaſt, or fiſh. The boys throw reeds and balls, and amuſe themſelves with ſtealing little girls, whom they beat and abuſe, in imitation of the marriage ceremonies. The ſolemnity of paying the tribute of teeth, ſeems to be performed every four years, and is repreſented in many plates publiſhed by Colonel Collins, being a truly ſingular delineation of ſavage life. In ſome parts of this ceremony the form and character of man ſeemed deſpiſed, and the ſuperiority of brutes acknowledged, by walking like quadrupeds, and the ambitious imitation of a tail. Power is, however, ſuppoſed to be conferred over the dog and the kangaroo, and the other parts ſeem an initiation in war and pain; but the whole is degrading to the dignity of human nature.

Theſe poor ſavages are alſo ſlaves of ſuperſtition, believing in magic, and witchcraft, and ghoſts, the latter being the nightmare; they have alſo ſpells againſt thunder and lightning, and pretend to foretell events by the meteors called falling ſtars. Their diſeaſes are few: the liſt has been augmented by their commerce with Europeans. They have not only perſonal property in their weapons and fiſhing tackle, but ſome are ſuppoſed hereditary proprietors of certain ſpots, perhaps aſſigned as rewards for public ſervices, or acts of great bravery. They have names for the ſun and moon, ſome few ſtars, the Magellanic clouds, and the milky way. Young people are buried, but thoſe who have paſſed the middle age are burnt, and commemorated by a rude tumulus.

Although a better acquaintance with the European ſettlers has mitigated their original hatred, yet theſe people, far from evincing the leaſt inclination to adopt better ſyſtems, ſhow an abſolute abhorrence of ſocial life. Some, indeed, mix with the inhabitants occaſionally, to take their ſhare in the labours and the rewards of thoſe who toil. "Amongſt theſe," ſays Mr. Mann, "there are five, in particular, to whom our countrymen have given the names of Bull Dog, Bidgy Bidgy, Bundell, Bloody Jack, and another, which I cannot recollect; but the laſt had a farm of four acres and upwards, planted with maize, at Hawkeſbury, which he held by permiſſion of Governor King; and the other four made themſelves extremely uſeful on board colonial veſſels employed in the fiſhing and ſealing trade, for which they were in the regular receipt of wages. They ſtrive, by every means in their power, to make themſelves appear like the ſailors with whom they aſſociate, by copying their cuſtoms, and imitating their manners; ſuch as ſwearing, uſing a great quantity of tobacco, drinking grog, and other ſimilar habits. Theſe natives are the only ones, I believe, who are inclined to induſtry; and they have, certainly, rendered eſſential ſervices to themſelves with aſſiſting to draw nets for fiſh, for the purpoſe of coming in for a ſhare of the produce of others toil."

Climate. From the ſituation, on the ſouthern ſide of the equator, the ſeaſons are like thoſe of the ſouthern part of Africa and America, the reverſe of thoſe in Europe; the ſummer correſponding with our winter, and the ſpring with autumn. The weather in December is very hot, the rains are heavy, appearing to fall chiefly about the full and change of the moon; and, at intervals, there are ſtorms of thunder and lightning. In Norfolk Iſland there is what may be called a rainy ſeaſon, from February to Auguſt. As the ſouth is, in this hemiſphere, the region of cold, there muſt be great difference in the temperature in this wide continent, which may alſo be affected, as uſual, by chains of mountains, and other circumſtances yet undiſcovered. Froſt is known but little; at leaſt, ice is very ſeldom ſeen; and ſnow has never yet appeared ſince the eſtabliſhment of the colony: yet, on the higheſt ridges of the remoter mountains, ſnow is to be ſeen for a long time together. The climate is, upon the whole, ſingularly ſalubrious; no tendency to diſeaſe appears, except where brought on by intemperance. The purity and warmth of the atmoſphere are particularly favourable to the growth of ſhrubs and plants, which flouriſh exceedingly, and attain to a degree of perfection and beauty unknown to the inhabitants of England. The woods and fields preſent a boundleſs variety of the choiceſt

productions of nature, which gratify the ſenſes with their fragrance and magnificence; while the branches of the trees diſplay a brilliant aſſemblage of the feathered race, whoſe plumage, "glittering in the ſun," dazzles the eye of the beholder, with its unmatched lovelineſs and luſtre.

BUILDINGS. The buildings are of ſtone, brick, and lath and plaſter, weather boarded, and the houſes are durable. There are two churches: one, St. Phillip's, which poſſeſſes a very handſome ſervice of communion plate, preſented by His Majeſty, and received by the Calcutta, on the 8th of October, 1803; and the other, St. John's, at Paramatta. There are likewiſe a ſchool and chapel at Hawkeſbury, where divine ſervice is performed. Two jails have alſo been erected in the colony. A houſe has been built for the governor at each of the principal ſettlements, which, alſo, poſſeſs ſeveral commodious barracks, with many other public buildings, and a great number of extenſive and handſome houſes, the property of private individuals. There are a ſtone bridge, and ſeveral ſubſtantial wooden ones, which, if not celebrated for beauty, are found extremely ſerviceable, and well calculated for all the preſent purpoſes of the colony, which is not yet ſufficiently advanced in proſperity to prefer ornament to uſe. A new ſtone citadel is in a courſe of building, on which the royal ſtandard, for the firſt time in theſe ſettlements, was hoiſted on the 4th of June, 1803; and ſeveral batteries are erected.

Omitting the objects of natural hiſtory, and many other topics of great intereſt to the philoſophical enquirer, the account of this infant colony, the lateſt, and one of the grandeſt acquiſitions of the Britiſh crown, is concluded here. What, in the lapſe of centuries, will be the deſtination of this portion of the globe, man would conjecture in vain; but, as the Blue Mountains have recently been traverſed, and as it appears that the whole continent is eminently endowed with the means of rewarding induſtry with comfort and luxury, it is impoſſible to imagine that it will not, in proceſs of time, be cultivated, built on, and repleniſhed by a countleſs race of induſtrious and intelligent human beings. That they will ſpeak the Engliſh language is a circumſtance to which hope points with emotions of pride; that they will know, adopt, and value the beautiful inſtitutes of the Britiſh conſtitution, and juriſprudence, is a cheering and gratifying proſpect; and that they may ever be enlightened by the true and bleſſed doctrines of the holy goſpel, and follow and inculcate them, according to the pure, pious, and rational forms of the eſtabliſhed church of England, is a wiſh, a hope, a prayer which crowns all expectation, repays all coſt, toil, and anxiety, and carries the ſpeculations

of the politician to the higheſt point to which benevolence can aſpire. Happy, indeed, and glorious may the preſent era be deemed, if, when New Holland ſhall be fully peopled, her hiſtorian may record, that the means of temporal good, and eternal welfare, have been derived to it from the parent iſland, the envied empire of Great Britain.

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Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.